

Seventy-Eighth Annual Meeting
OF THE
American
Institute of Instruction

BURLINGTON, VERMONT

PROCEEDINGS CONSTITUTION
LIST OF ACTIVE MEMBERS
AND ADDRESSES



Published by order of the Board of Directors

SHELTON, CONNECTICUT
American Institute of Instruction
1908

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Foreword

In preparing the program and in making other arrangements for the Burlington meeting, the management aimed to produce a meeting which should be a vital and coherent discussion of live issues, led by the men and women who seemed best equipped for that purpose, heard and participated in so far as possible by the full strength of the attendance. Such a plan involved two parts, first the presentation of a good program and second such control of outside attractions as would permit the meetings to assume their legitimate powers of attraction.

In the preparation of the program, every effort was made to secure participants best qualified to speak upon the topics proposed. It was deemed by the management impracticable to ask the speakers to give their time and services and at the same time to pay their expenses. Therefore, all who took part in the program did so as the guests of the Institute. No other compensation was paid to anybody, and no allowance was made to anybody connected with the meeting beyond actual expenses. The prolonged and somewhat formidable task of securing the right speakers and enough of them was borne by the president, the vice-president and the several department chairmen, under the general oversight of the president. So far as the program succeeded in realizing the plans of the management, credit is chiefly due to the successful carrying out of details by the department chairmen.

Early in the season, an arrangement was effected

with the Chamberlain Transportation Co. which gave the management control of the excursion feature. The practical result was some unusually enjoyable and restful excursions, while the meetings were not in the least interfered with. The Transportation Co. dealt generously with the Institute so that we not only achieved our main purpose without expense, but derived a small revenue even from the excursions.

The registration at the meeting was the smallest for several years, partly due to the extremely hot weather of the first of the week, but chiefly to changes in railroad arrangements. The registration was scarcely more than one-half the attendance. This regrettable outcome was undoubtedly due to the fact that from a large part of the territory the reduction in railroad rates was not sufficient to make it financially worth while for anybody to pay the membership fee for the sake of reduced rate privileges. The result was that a large number of attendants enjoyed the benefits of the meeting without paying for them. The policy of the Institute in the future undoubtedly should be to admit to meetings and other advantages of the Institute only upon the display of a badge or other evidence of membership.

THE FUTURE OF THE INSTITUTE.

Times have changed since the Institute was founded. The day of large meetings, full of enthusiasm possessing a powerful effect upon the public imagination is gone. The present is a time of earnest professional counseling together, the ob-

ject of which is effective improvement within the professional area rather than extended agitation outside. A natural attendant circumstance is the breaking up into very many small bodies, the bounds of which are the limitations of particular interests. Hence the superintendent, the college president, the high school and grammar school principal have all tended to become chiefly interested in their own particular associations. More than this, the classics teacher, the mathematics teacher, the science teacher, the drawing teacher, the music teacher, the kindergartner and a host of others have formed their own associations for the discussion of their own specific problems. The process cannot fail to be attended with much intensive good. It is also inevitably attended at present by two bad features: first, it tends to separate those engaged in a common effort so that they do not effectively pull together, and do not thoroughly understand their reciprocal interests; and secondly, it has produced such a multiplicity of meetings that it is impossible both in point of time and in point of money for those to enjoy them all who ought to receive benefit from them all.

A great good would undoubtedly be accomplished in the direction of unification if all the educational associations having New England as their field should unite as departments of the American Institute and hold their meetings at the same time. Each association could preserve entirely its autonomous condition, so far as its own interest is concerned, and still, being welded into a federal whole in the Institute itself, would contribute to the in-

evitable effect of unified effort. We will suppose that several, or all of the associations referred to, should come to make it their plan to hold their meetings at the same time and in the same place, the joint or aggregate meeting constituting the American Institute; what would be the probable result? In the first place a great deal of time now given up to attending several meetings would be saved; in the second place very considerable financial savings would probably be made; thirdly, since all would meet for one or two general sessions, and since all would be together for the inevitable but very profitable shop-talk, such a meeting could hardly fail to bring into constantly better relations and mutual understanding the college and the high school, the secondary school and the elementary school, the administrative officer and the teacher, and teachers of all grades and departments; fourthly, a clearing-house would thus be created, capable of solving many of the perplexing problems due to lack of understanding which are now so common.

The American Institute is certainly the oldest educational association in New England. There is no other educational body in this part of the country so inclusive as the American Institute. For these reasons, if for no others, the Institute has the best right to propose to all educational associations having New England as their field that they get together and join forces annually, or semi-annually, in one united effort for the general cause of education.

H. C. MORRISON,
President.

Seventy-eighth Annual Meeting
OF THE
American Institute of Instruction
Burlington, Vermont
JULY 7, 8, 9, 1908

GENERAL SESSIONS.

**Tuesday Evening, July 7—High School
Assembly Hall.**

8 o'clock.

Music under the direction of Mr. W. B. SHAUL.

Music, Male Quartette—Selected.

Messrs. Fisher, Little, Hull, Shaul.

Invocation.

Rev. J. C. Staples, Pastor Unitarian Church, Burlington.

Addresses of Welcome.

His Honor, Walter J. Bigelow, Mayor of Burlington.

His Excellency, Fletcher D. Proctor, Governor of Vermont.

Address of Response.

Hon. Henry C. Morrison, State Superintendent for New Hampshire, President of the American Institute.

Child Labor and the Schools.

Dr. E. W. Lord, Secretary for New England of the National Child Labor Committee, formerly Assistant Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico.

Religion and Education.

Rev. John M. Thomas, D. D., President of Middlebury College.

**Wednesday Morning, July 8—High School
Assembly Hall.**

9 to 12:30.

Music Solo—

- a. The Bandolero *Stuart*
- b. Turnkey's Song *De Koven*

MR. W. B. SHAUL.

Business Session.

Reports of Secretary and Treasurer. Appointment of Committees.

General Topic:—Industrial Education.

- (a.) The Direct Relation of Industrial Education to National Prosperity.

President George Emory Fellows, University of Maine.

- (b.) What Has been Done and Is Being Done in New England.

Principal Willis O. Smith, Lancaster, N. H.

- (c.) The Need of Industrial Education and Its Methods—From the business man's point of view.

Mr. M. W. Alexander, General Electric Company, Lynn, Mass., Vice-President National Society for Promotion of Industrial Education.

- (d.) The Need of Industrial Education and Its Methods—From an educationalist's point of view.

Principal Charles F. Warner, Technical High School, Springfield, Mass.

**Wednesday Evening, July 8—High School
Assembly Hall.**

8 o'clock.

Music Solo—

- a. Good-Bye *Tosti*
b. A Red, Red Rose *Hastings*

MR. W. B. SHAUL.

Report of the Committee on the Teaching of International Peace.

Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews, Boston.

General Topic:—The Recruitment of the Teaching Force.

- (a.) The Movement for Higher Salaries. Some Moral Considerations.

Superintendent Frank H. Beede, New Haven, Conn.

- (b.) A State Pension Scheme.

Hon. Walter E. Ranger, State Superintendent for Rhode Island.

- (c.) The Teachers' Compensations.

Professor Wm. T. Foster, Bowdoin College.

Thursday Morning, July 9—High School Building.

9 o'clock.

SECTION MEETINGS.**Administration.**

Chairman, Supt. CLARENCE H. DEMPSEY,
St. Johnsbury, Vt.

- (a.) The Maintenance of an Efficient Teaching Force.
Superintendent Frank E. Parlin, Quincy, Mass.
- (b.) The Age Problem in the Grades.
Superintendent Frank H. Beede, New Haven,
Conn.
- (c.) Rural Schools: Their Administration and their
Functions.
Superintendent Bert E. Merriam, Bellows
Falls, Vt.
- (d.) The Ideal and the Practical in School Administra-
tion.
Superintendent Stanley H. Holmes, New
Britain, Ct.

The addresses will be followed by discussions led by
State Superintendent Mason S. Stone, of Vermont, by Super-
intendent Ernest L. Silver, of Portsmouth, N. H., and others.

Normal Schools.

Chairman, Principal HENRY T. BURR, Willimantic, Ct.

- (a.) The Normal Schools are urged to prepare teachers
to give instruction in Agriculture, Home Eco-
nomics and Manual Training. To what ex-
tent should we meet this demand?

From the standpoint of the State Depart-
ment.

Hon. Payson Smith, State Supt.
for Maine.

From the standpoint of the Normal
School Principal.

Principal Arthur C. Boyden,
Bridgewater.

Discussion.

- (b.) What can the Normal School do to help teachers who are in active service?

Principal Charles H. Morrill, Randolph, Vt.

Discussion.

Secondary Schools.

Chairman, Principal ROBERT J. SISK, Auburn, Maine.

- (a.) History in the High School.

Principal Walter H. Cushing, Framingham, Mass.

- (b.) The English Teacher's Opportunity.

M. Catherine Mahy, Hope Street High School, Providence, Rhode Island.

- (c.) The Professional Growth of the Secondary Teacher.

Professor Arthur O. Norton, Harvard University.

Discussion.

Elementary Schools.

Chairman, Superintendent FRED A. VERPLANCK, So. Manchester, Ct.

- (a.) The Average School and How It May Be Improved.

Supervisor Bertha M. McConkey, Springfield, Mass.

- (b.) Some Fundamental Characteristics of the Efficient Teacher.

Superintendent Frank C. Johnson, Hillsboro, N. H.

- (c.) Medical Inspection of Schools.

Dr. Charles V. Chapin, Superintendent Health Department, Providence, Rhode Island.

- (d.) The Training of Pupils in Civic Ideals.

Principal Mary McSkimmon, Brookline, Mass.

Discussion.

Rural Schools.

Chairman, Principal H. J. STANNARD, Barton, Vt.

- (a.) Consolidation of Schools and Transportation.

Principal L. E. Chittenden, Bellows Free Academy, Vt.

- (b.) Supervision of Rural Schools.

Superintendent E. M. Roscoe, Springfield, Vt.

- (c.) Grading in Rural Schools.

Superintendent E. S. Watson, Newport, Vt.

Discussion.

**Thursday Evening, July 9—High School
Assembly Hall.**

8 o'clock.

Music, Male Quartette—Selected.

Messrs. Fisher, Little, Hull, Shaul.

The Teacher's Reward.

President Flavel S. Luther, Trinity College.

Report of Committee on Affiliation of New England Educational Associations.

Principal Wallace C. Boyden, Boston Normal School.

Report of Committee on Necrology.

State Superintendent Walter E. Ranger, Chairman.

Closing Business of the Meeting.

Addresses

CHILD LABOR AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

EVERETT W. LORD, A. M.,
SECRETARY FOR NEW ENGLAND OF THE NATIONAL
CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE,
BOSTON, MASS.

I feel that I need make no apology for addressing a body of educators on the subject of child labor, for under present-day conditions every problem of child life is a school problem. That is to be seen in the schools of New York City, where the question of providing breakfasts for fifty thousand pupils has to be considered, and where the public is demanding free municipal eyeglasses for children with defective eyes; it is equally to be seen in the rural districts of New England where the parents on the lonely farms are asking the school boards to transport their children to town schools. There was a time in the days of our fathers when the public school had no part in such general problems; there was no thought that the teacher should do more than teach, and the teaching was limited to the "three R's." In those days the real center of life and activity of adult and child alike was the home. Farming was the usual occupation, and

few of the boys ever thought of leaving the farm. For those whose ambitions led them into trades there was the system of apprenticeship providing for trade education, and the young men bound out as apprentices came to the public schools only to acquire that elementary literary education recognized as essential for every citizen. Happy the old-time teachers whose qualifications were little more than a quick eye and an active arm! Little need had they of summer schools and special courses. The parent, not the teacher—the home, not the school—was held responsible for the welfare of the child. Each did its work well; illiteracy was almost unknown, and the home training produced a sturdy and progressive body of industrial workers.

But the character of the home has changed in the past two generations. The city newsboy calls his papers on the very spot where once the plow-boy followed the oxen, and the manifold industries which formed a part of household life have been relegated to factory and workshop. The modern child has not the opportunity to learn at home the processes of hand-work, and he is likely to fail to acquire the habits of manual industry which were so important a part of the personal equipment of his parents. Our boys have not the feelings that their fathers had toward the wood-saw and the saw-horse, and our girls are likely to be less expert with the flatiron than with the curling-iron. It is useless to say that the old way was better. In some respects undoubtedly it was better, but it has gone, not to return, and recognizing that fact it is

our place to look to the present. The changed conditions have made it necessary for the school to undertake much of the training which was formerly considered within the province of the home. Our educational authorities are accepting this burden, as is evidenced from the continual addition to courses of study and the corresponding additions to the equipment and personnel of our school departments. A careful perusal of the published course of study of any up-to-date school system leads one to believe that the school has left nothing untouched, and that the pupils who have such opportunities must be well prepared to enter upon any career. The high school follows the grades, the college and university the high school, and all are open to the ambitious student almost, or quite, without other expense than that of self-support. We rejoice in this fact, which shows so great an advance over earlier conditions, and which has accustomed us to consider our school system better than that of any other nation of the day.

But do the children, for whom the schools exist, take advantage of all these opportunities? The available statistics indicate that not more than one-half of the children who enter school in the first grade go further than the sixth, in which they attain the age of fourteen years; that barely one in three completes the grammar school course; that only one in five enters the high school; and that five-sixths of those who enter fail to graduate. That is, that of the entire body of pupils not more than one in thirty receives the complete education universally given at public expense. From this

small percentage of high school graduates come all candidates for professional and managerial positions, and nearly all of our business men and women. What becomes of the vast majority, those young people who fall out along the way? They who are most fortunate find their way into the skilled trades; they who are least fortunate go to fill the ranks of the army of unskilled laborers and that other army of the unemployed. Because the state does not enforce attendance at school thereafter, half the children in America end their school life with their fourteenth birthday, regardless of their advancement at the time. This proportion may not be exact for New England, but it holds for the nation, and even in New England the latest census figures which show that there were in 1900 nearly five thousand children between ten and fourteen years of age who were unable to read or write—absolutely illiterate—show that the school is making too slight an impression on the school population. Too frequently, in individual cases, at least, the law which requires attendance up to the age of fourteen is allowed to be non-effective. Even in New England, where we think we have such respect for educational traditions, many a boy and girl under fourteen years of age finds a way to leave the school and enter the factory. Within the past year, and during the school year, a boy nine years of age was found regularly employed in a factory in Vermont. In Massachusetts and New Hampshire children of eleven have been found so employed. Such cases are contrary to law and, I believe, are not typical, but what of the legion of young people legally dis-

missed from school? They may go directly to the factory, where they can acquire a superficial knowledge of one of the various processes in the manufacture of a single article, but where they quickly forget the little they learned at school, and learn little or nothing which can fit them for future usefulness. Some drift into the street trades, where, as a bootblack or a newsboy or a messenger, a boy frequently extends his education along lines which lead directly to the juvenile court or the house of refuge. Almost every locality has some activity which has a place for the young workers. In the coal mining regions thousands of young boys from ten to fifteen years of age are constantly employed in the coal breakers, wearing themselves out in the hard and unprofitable labor involved in culling the slate and rock from the ceaseless streams of coal. In the Central States large numbers of boys are employed in the glass houses, working half the time by day and half the time by night, under conditions which make for physical deterioration and moral degradation. In our large cities the department stores employ hosts of young girls, whose work as cash and bundle girls has little of educational value even to fit the girl for positions as saleswomen, to which they might reasonably hope sometime to attain. In the agricultural districts the canning factories demand the labor of an army of children.

We do not know just what is the extent of child labor in the United States; it has been impossible to secure accurate statistics, though at the present time the Department of Commerce and Labor is conducting an investigation which will give us

more definite information. At the best, however, probably not less than a million boys and girls under fifteen years of age are engaged in some gainful pursuit other than agriculture. These young people have received their formal education—all that the state has to give them. It may be said that in their vocations the education of the young workers is being continued. They do learn some things which seem to be good, without doubt; for instance, they learn to be self-reliant, and proper self-reliance is a prime requisite to success in any line of endeavor. They learn to be industrious, if to be kept constantly at work is to be industrious. They acquire deftness and quickness in some simple mechanical operation. Surrounded by dangerous machinery, the factory children are trained to be careful and alert, although the frequent accidents which young employes sustain indicate that their training in these directions is not very complete. Can anyone claim that the education of the child worker includes other beneficial effects? I know of no others of general application. And these things which the child laborer learns, even if they be recognized as of value, are prematurely learned. They are things which in the normal course of events, would be acquired only in later years, and their premature acquisition is at best of doubtful value. Prematurity is usually unfortunate; the bud that bursts forth soonest is the earliest to decay and is least likely to develop fruit.

The early economic independence of the child is an economic evil. It tends directly to disturb the family relation, freeing the young and immature

from the parental restraint which necessarily follows from dependence upon the parent. Independence without a corresponding sense of responsibility is perilous in the case of men as of nations. Just as the United States has to interfere in the affairs of the petty republics of the Tropics because of their national independence and racial irresponsibility, so the state may have to interfere with the young citizen whose economic independence has preceded his sense of personal responsibility.

The mechanical training which is urged at times as one of the good effects of child labor is, when analyzed, seen to be one of its worst features. Only that education is of value which causes a person to think for himself, which arouses the intelligence and enables one to reason from cause to effect and from effect back to cause. The constant and monotonous repetition of mechanical processes cannot fail to weaken the power of reason. The child worker has little occasion to exercise his reason, having only to repeat slight operations which call for no action of vital intellect, and this thought-killing repetition results at the last in a complete submergence of the reasoning power, if indeed the intelligence of the operative is not entirely atrophied. Instead of being prepared for other and more profitable work by his mechanical training, it more often results in fixing his place irrevocably in the class of unskilled and poorly paid laborers. For whatever else he may be learning, the young factory "hand" is not learning a trade. When it is urged that the acquisition of a permanent means of earning a livelihood is one beneficial result of

early work, it should be remembered that it has been proven too evidently to admit of discussion that in the modern factory nothing of this nature is learned. The boys and girls are instructed how to feed a machine—nothing more. Their knowledge of the processes of manufacture is little or no greater at the end of four years than it was after their first week's work.

It is quite unnecessary, perhaps, to call attention to the fact that immature labor makes impossible the cultivation of a true artistic sense; by an "artistic sense" I mean only that sense of proportion and taste which form a vital part of the intellectual life and economic evolution of any individual. A false sense of value in which the brilliant and gaudy is reckoned of greater worth than the plain and substantial, is reasonably sure to follow that training which is exclusively materialistic. Similarly, a false physical standard is one of the frequent effects of early and continual occupation; the normal resources for maintaining bodily health and vigor, the vital power of fresh air and out-door exercise, the potent action of mental invigoration, all are unknown or unrecognized, and the resort to stimulants and drugs is correspondingly frequent. The liquor dealer and the concoctor of patent medicines, twin despoilers of health and happiness, find easy victims in the weakened and wearied factory workers.

From any point of view, the wide extent of child labor in the United States is a veritable menace; it is a sacrifice upon the altar of Mammon, and a needless sacrifice. For these children are not

needed in the industrial world, and there are few cases where the situation of the family is so unfortunate that the parents cannot support their children. Careful investigations, such as that made by the Massachusetts Industrial Commission, have proven that this statement is warranted. The fourteen-year-old boys and girls leave school because they want to get into active life, be where "something is doing," and see some tangible return for their efforts. If they believed that the school had anything of real value to give them, they would stay, at least a year or two more. Here, then, we see the child labor evil as distinctly a school problem, and I believe that we can diminish child labor in exact proportion as we provide for more practical training in our public schools. I have said that the changed conditions of the times have made it imperative that the school undertake much that formerly pertained to the province of the home. The boy or girl who lacks opportunity to acquire industrial training in the home must be given that opportunity in the school. Our schools must no longer offer only the educational preparation needed by the business man and the professional man: they must comply with the righteous demand of the vast host who are now neglected that they, too, be given some preparation for the life work which they are to do. The trade school must parallel the high school, and the work in the grades must provide a sufficient amount of industrial training to develop the taste and foster the inclination of the mechanically inclined.

I do not wish to be understood merely as recommending the addition of extensive manual courses to

our already over-burdened curriculum; my suggestion is perhaps more radical, but I believe more practical: I would have our courses re-written, from the fourth or fifth grade up, with much of the traditional and ornamental omitted, and with hand work made the center of interest. Experience has shown that in schools devoting half or nearly half their time to manual industries the literary and scientific subjects fare fully as well as in other schools, seeming to be learned not simply as school exercises, to be applied only in the classroom and to textbook problems, but as simple and practical matters of evident application to current surroundings and daily life.

Language and composition, the effective and acceptable use of the vernacular, can be easily taught when there are real things to describe and real work to explain. In our experience in Porto Rico we found that the young Porto Ricans in the industrial schools, constantly employed in making things and doing things, learned English as an incidental part of their course more perfectly and more expeditiously than did the pupils of the regular grades, who devoted much time to the exclusive study of the language, but who had to rely largely upon lessons from books, studying about things, and missing the reality.

More Arithmetic can be taught to a class of boys, twelve or thirteen years old, in connection with a course of practical work in a carpenter shop than can be done in the same time with the carpentry all left out. Drawing is, of course, directly related to industrial work, if it be not classed as an in-

dustrial subject. Geography and even History do not need to suffer in connection with industrial training, and there will be less need to teach Physiology and Hygiene from text-books when their lessons are constantly applied and enforced in daily life.

The time is near when our courses of study for the elementary schools must be greatly modified, when much that is now taught in the abstract will be illuminated by concrete hand work. How often have we teachers found it hard to reach the heart of the adolescent boy who cares little for the dry knowledge shut up in school books, while his physical energy cries out against the irksome restraint of the classroom! Through the hand, not through the head, can such a heart be gained. Destructive child labor can be largely abolished, the industrial resources of the nation can be powerfully advanced, and society can be made richer and nobler if the educational forces of the country take prompt action. The problem is yours: the result is the nation's.

RELIGION AND EDUCATION.

REV. JOHN M. THOMAS, D. D.,
PRESIDENT MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE.

Education is the outgrowth of the religious spirit. With body frail and subject to a thousand perils, with knowledge and understanding sufficient to but a trifling

fraction of the mysteries that beat in upon his life, with the universe of the far stars and the mighty sun crushing him with its greatness, man would yet rise in majestic self-assertion to the victory of the spirit over all things and forces in space and time. This heroic endeavor after permanence and personal worth is Religion.

It is an essential and primary act of man, the necessary expression of the higher qualities that constitute his manhood. A creature of dominion in a baffling world, man must seek unto powers above him. With a heart that will have the victory beating in a frame which returns to dust, he is forced to faith for the maintenance of his very being. He will not be the victim and sport of things he seems to be, and that will be the guaranty of religion, which is therefore part of the ambition of our manhood, as native as hunger or love.

Religion is not disinterested. The savage seeks unto his fetich that he may attain power to conquer his enemy, or otherwise advance his interests. The heathen in his blindness bows down to wood and stone, because to him the wood and stone are symbols of the powers that control his life. Even in its higher manifestations and noblest form, Religion directs itself unto the attainment of blessings. Art must seek beauty for beauty's sake alone; philosophy must love the truth simply because it is the truth; morals at their highest declare commandments without argument and without promise of reward; but religious feeling, in distinction from these, beats unshamedly at the temples of the gods in the greatness of its desire and in the bitterness of its need. By his faith a man will

before all things be saved, and some form of individual redemption is the goal of every variety of piety.

Religion, therefore, as the search for the means of greatest blessing, the quest of the higher and the mightier, has ever impelled men out into the regions of wonder. Faith dwells continually on the borderland of knowledge. She retreats from that which is analyzed and described, and takes up her home anew in that which is still mysterious. No man prays at an oracle whose utterances are reduced to system, nor continues long his habits of devotion when their effect is fully explained by psychological laws. In vain they bid us call an "act of God" that which is perfectly understood. If God thunders by law, the thunder is *not* his voice, as the old-time children of the forest heard it. The dryads no longer fill the recesses of the wood; we know the woods too well. The nymphs departed from the waterfalls when men grew bold to explore them. The divine is ever in the unknown and mysterious, upon which the common hands of investigation have not yet been laid. Faith is the pioneer that pushes out into the regions of mystery, and brings back vague and marvelous reports, which challenge inquiry and form new subjects for investigation.

Men at one time worshiped fire. How marvelous the flame flashing from the sky, at places belching from the earth, tearing up great trees, consuming the grass of the far-stretching plains! With awe and wonder the early peoples sought to receive good at the hand of fire, and to save themselves from harm at its hands; they designated men to care for it, to prepare their offerings to it, and to propitiate it. Thus they learned to control the fire and use it, and when the fire became

their servant, they sought another god. Worship led to knowledge: religion advanced civilization.

In the great plain of Babylonia, where the circle of the earth is so vast and the inhabitants but as grasshoppers, men worshiped the stars, believing that the heavenly bodies controlled the destinies of individuals and nations. They studied the movements of sun and moon, and the laws of planetary motion, in religious longing to attain good and assert the rule of the spirit, and from that study, with its religious motive, the sciences of mathematics and astronomy came into being.

In primitive times, when tribes of hunters or herdsmen roamed the forests and plains, they thought of their clan as the descendants of a particular deity, who would avenge upon the tribe a wrong committed by any member of it. Thus arose the very idea of public right. In its earliest stages law is all intermingled with religious concepts and usages. Faith laid the foundation of the temple of justice.

Through long centuries the priests were the only physicians. The superficial observer points to the horrors of priestly magic in the attempted cure of disease, and the superstitions that plague us still because of the confusion of physical healing with religious faith. More carefully studied and more justly observed, the science of medicine had its beginning in the crude attempts of religious men to deliver humanity from its enemies. The impulse was religious; in religion medicine had its birth.

Chemistry betrays its religious origin in the superstitions of alchemy. Sculpture was at one time piety, music was worship, all art was devotion to the gods.

Religion has been the mother of beauty and the resourceful pioneer of progress. In his heroic endeavor to conquer the world, in his resolution to attain good despite all powers of evil, man has reduced to law one after another the provinces of information to which his attention has been attracted, pressed ever farther back the borders of the unknown, made himself continuously master of new arts, a victor in new fields.

They are vigorous and independent children whom religion rears, and they refuse to abide under the surveillance and authority of the mother who brought them into being. Astronomy set out on her own way at length, and in the prison of Galileo wrote her declaration of independence. Art, the awkward infant that drew in every particle of her early nourishment from religion, long since grew strong in her own right, and beauty, which once had no life apart from the gods, has won such place in human affection that her lovers give her form for her own fair sake alone. The law is independent, and medicine also, although it proves to be most difficult for religious people to keep their fingers off the humane endeavors of the healing art. Since Immanuel Kant it has been recognized that even the moral law must learn to do without religious sanction, that no man is thoroughly good until the right commands his will by its own inherent majesty.

It might seem that the religious spirit has served its purpose in education, and is no longer needed to furnish objects of inquiry or to stimulate achievement. The children of faith appear to have reached manhood, and to be entirely competent to go their own way. Law is established, and men can go on perfecting government and social usages by the principles of justice al-

ready established. The love of beauty will continue to lead into ever fairer artistic expression. Limitless fields appear on the horizon in every physical science, boundless opportunity for investigation and discovery, and the heart of man can be trusted not to flag in the pursuit of all that is worthy and good.

Unless all signs of the times deceive, religious organizations are destined to have less and less to do with educational effort. Sectarianism in education has met its certain doom. The broadest fact in educational history in recent years is its increasing secularization, using that word in no derogatory sense. In the Middle Ages the Church did all the educating, and the monks were the only school-masters. The first universities were as much religious institutions as the cathedrals which grew at their side. All our early American colleges, in their inception, were religious enterprises. When the clergymen of the New Haven colony gave their books for the founding of a college, they but created a symbol of the religious spirit with which from the first American education has been permeated. But very gradually and very steadily the Church has gone out of the educating business. The clergyman has retreated into the background in educational endeavor. The older colleges, built by godly ministers, which have met with largest favor, have lost most of their religious manner. The institutions lately founded through religious enterprise are often small and feeble, struggling in competition in narrow territories, while by their side Universities of large equipment, with which the cleric has had little to do, are steadily overtopping them. On the surface at least it looks as if our colleges had forsaken the mother

which bore them, and, while recognizing religion as an innocent employment for those who are inclined thereto, depend no longer upon the religious motive.

But, in the meantime, the facts of our human nature have not changed. We are still creatures of desire, permeated with the ineradicable conviction that happiness and blessing are our right, and pressing on, therefore, despite the tragic experiences of all our fathers from the beginning of time, to some far haven of peace and quietness, where the weary are at rest. We are still held irresistibly to upward striving; to stop it were to leave off the very quality of manhood. We may never desist our struggle for assurance of permanence and personal worth in this world of tempests and earthquakes, before which our powers are as the flutter of an insect's wing in the roaring of the storm. These facts and forces are to be counted on, as blunt, unescapable realities, impelling us to deeds.

Now, in the region of personal values, the industries and arts in which our expanding science has busied us are of small avail. The knowledge of things can not assure the triumph of the spirit. It is the veriest truism to declare that man's appetite for blessings can not be satisfied with material goods. Though I speak through the sound waves of the upper aether, though I even journey through its spaces and bind its every mysterious current and force to work my will, if my inner manhood has not learned its worth, it profiteth me nothing. A man is no more than his soul, and all the inventions we call so great do not leave our real manhood one whit better advantaged than was theirs who hung on the lips of Socrates. Man is still the measure of all things.

Moreover, the worlds science has to conquer are limited, and there is tragic sighing of spirit at their end. There is no ultimate for the human soul in the conquest of knowledge. There is ever yet more to learn, and in that sense no end to science; but the process itself cloyes after a little, and testifies that it can by no means lead to a satisfactory end. A man may ever learn and never come to a knowledge of the truth. The reason is that he is not pursuing truth, but acquiring facts, classifying and labeling items of knowledge, which is not the acquirement of truth, but the stuffing of a museum. Truth is vital and personal; it is fact which finds its way to the soul of a man and nourishes his spirit. There is no assurance of personal worth in the mastery of any quantity of physical fact. There is no real victory of the spirit in science, however perfected.

If life is worth the fight, if there is any hope for us beyond these few years of struggle, it is not through the telescope and the discovery of new stars, nor yet through increased dominion over the matter and forces of the earth, but rather through communion with human spirits of such grandeur and worth that life as they reveal it to us is inherently majestic and grand, and perchance also immortal. If, in the face of discouragement and the thousand difficulties of life, the heart of us is still to rule in courage, if manhood is not to perish but to increase in honor and heroic hold on right, the hope once more is in knowledge of human life, the good and the great who have lived our life nobly and conquered all baseness.

The religious spirit, therefore, which impels man to seek his highest personal good, is a present and per-

manent force in education. It serves to hold us fast to those earnest studies of the human spirit, in its noblest manifestations in all forms and in all ages, which develop personal power and teach the old-time triumphs of men who knew their worth. My fundamental need as a man is not to know how things are made and put together, nor how they act and react on one another, but rather how I, physically the veriest atom of the universe, may rise superior to the entire sum of the mass of matter, and be myself, despite the boundless universe of form and stuff. Therefore I must study chiefly the victors who have gone before me: I must study history, because it is the story of victors in the realm of action; I must master the literature of great peoples, that from them I may draw in the courage by which they overcame; I must study religion also, because it is the work of heroes of belief, and faith, in this world of difficulty, has helped men most to overcome.

We learned long since that we can put nature under our feet, and we have consumed no little useless energy of late in glorying in that triumph. For how vain is the victory while the contest is still so terrible within our own soul, while millions of our brothers go down under the onslaught of the same old passions that have cast down many mighty since the days of Samson and David. Humanity's contest is within, and the weapons that tell are not carnal, not physical: they are the truth the prophets have forged out of life; the songs the poets have opened their hearts to hear; the visions the martyrs have caught from God; the words of spirit and life which men of thought and insight of all creeds and times have written for the learning of those who

would hold their human heritage. We will not let go our grip on that which is high, and our upward-striving manhood chains us to the humanities, in whose pursuit alone we can keep to our human estate.

These same religious forces, the impulse to permanence, worth, and the attainment of blessings, which, as I have shown, are realities which will always exert their power, indicate the spirit in which all studies should be pursued and the object and purpose which must be sought in them. All branches of knowledge should be followed in a college in a humane spirit and unto a human end. The study of the classics in college is not to make classical scholars chiefly. It is not to be counted a failure if twenty years after one can not read Homer or Horace. The real object of classical study is the mastery of the qualities of mind and spirit embodied in the classical literatures. It is the soul of Homer we are after, not the language of Homer. The boy for whom the words of his Latin text are so many awkward ways of spelling English ideas wastes his time over Vergil. Plain English is far more useful than English served up in the form of a Greek or Latin puzzle. But if, by a little use of will and application, which has its own intrinsic benefits, a young man works his way through vocabulary and syntax, so that he comes to feel at last the untranslatable beauty and force of the ancient masters, who created the very idea of literature, there will be no question of its benefit to him. That is what I mean by the study of the classics in a humane spirit and unto a human end.

Geology is a pure science. It has to do with the facts concerning the earth on which we live, the his-

tory and manner of its construction, the forms of life it has contained in the vast successive ages. It can be made a mere catalogue of facts, a dry chronicle of happenings that have been a very long time dead. It can also be made a marvelous story of the childhood of the world, days of tremendous physical catastrophes and changes, through the long ages beside which our little human history is the tiniest moment of a child's afternoon. How then the mind is enlarged, and the vision of the eye is lengthened! A man then acquires a sense of proportion, a realization of his size, and takes to himself becoming reverence and humility, as a creature of but a moment of the great eternities. So taught, geology becomes a humanity.

The question for present education is not whether science or letters should be chiefly pursued, but whether science, and letters also, shall be followed in a utilitarian and materialistic spirit, or with a view to the larger development of manhood. One may study mechanics and physics and become merely a machine ditch-digger, of ditch-digging manhood, superior only in the quantity of dirt that is handled at a scoop. If a man is concerned only with the transportation of things, it matters little whether he build a cart to be hitched to a donkey, or an electric system of a thousand cars at sixty miles an hour. Things are things, and their size is of little moment. But it is possible to study physics and learn something more than the material properties of objects, and the mighty forces and currents which may be set in motion in physical bodies. Descartes observed that "scientific truths are battles won". There is a personal side to every physical law and discovery. Somebody found

it out; somebody gave patience and love to its discovery, sought for it, not for lucre's sake, but for fair truth's beauty. The biographical side of every science is of exceeding importance. Many a student who is dull and dead to mathematical formulae and principles could be made to thrill with interest if the history of the science could be brought to his notice. No department of study has a larger and nobler story of devotion and severe labor; none has done more to expand the mind of the race: none is more richly dowered with tales of romance, of heroism, even of martyrdom, than this proverbially dry and difficult science. Only a small number of students will ever become mathematicians, and few will employ its principles in their after life. The notion that its problems furnish the principles of reasoning in life's practical problems is a baseless superstition. The man who tries to work out problems of life by algebraic formulae is not right in his mind. Two and two do not make four when you have to do with persons. But taught and studied as one of the sciences that have nobly occupied and uplifted the men of our race, through whose mastery the student is preparing to hold himself to any question, until he sees it as it is, discerning the essential and neglecting the negligible, and until further he arrives at a result that is not approximate, not guesswork, but correct, and capable of explanation and of successful defense,—so studied mathematics take on a living interest and are entitled to their honor also as a humane branch of learning.

If these things are true, the religious spirit has still much to contribute to American education. By its insistence on personal values it sends us to the hu-

manities, those studies in which alone we discover and maintain our worth. By the fires it kindles for the victory of the spirit over all things and forces it sanctifies our industry and research in every department of the physical realm. In the face of our marvelous triumphs over material forces, it warns us of the undubitable fact that man can not live by bread alone, no matter how large and rich the supply. It lifts the most prosaic, earthy science into the higher realm of the spirit. It bids us educate men as men, and not as clever brutes.

The religious spirit is something very deep and subtle. It escapes the confines men build for it, and in places where it is unauthorized, unrecognized, perhaps unbidden, finds a more congenial home. Religion has not lost its power in American education. The sincere love of truth, whatever the truth may be, is more religious than the resolution to propagate a fixed and determined system of truth. The free service of all the people, without sectarian interest, is more godly than partisan service of a portion of the people. The lifting of the life of a commonwealth is assuredly not less pious than endeavor to provide officers for a particular organization in that commonwealth. We are delivered in these times from the narrow, ecclesiastical zeal of the founders of American education, but the deeper, broader religious feeling, which accompanied that zeal and sanctified it, and which has its life and its assurance of permanence in our very nature as men, still commands and dictates an education broad in scope, large in spirit, and directed to the cultivation of the spirit that is in man and the life which he shares with God.

DIRECT RELATION OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION TO NATIONAL PROSPERITY.

GEORGE EMORY FELLOWS,
PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MAINE.

The permanent peace and happiness of a nation must rest upon a foundation of general prosperity. No one would call a nation prosperous where a comparatively small number of the inhabitants are possessed of great wealth, and the remainder are in a condition dependent upon the bounty of the wealthy, or upon the labor of each day for that day's subsistence. No nation which is generally prosperous will be without a considerable number of individuals who have accumulated large amounts of property through foresight and industry, but general prosperity must mean a condition of financial independence of a large majority of the total population. This financial independence consists in ability to earn, and the opportunity to earn, such an income that the worker, and those dependent upon him, may acquire through the pursuit of his chosen occupation sufficient income for maintenance, and a reasonable provision for sickness and old age.

General prosperity includes more than financial independence. All the citizens should have an opportunity to obtain such education as they may desire, and enough leisure to enjoy the advantages which the culture and refinement of the community where they dwell, may offer. It is needless to cite countries where these desirable conditions do not

prevail. We could easily name countries which have been most prominent historically, where there is no general prosperity, and where abject poverty and ignorance exist side by side with inherited wealth and culture. If in theory there be in these countries universal education, in practice the education has not as yet accomplished its best results.

Very recently in the history of the world has it occurred that organized government, together with the efforts of social leaders, have attempted to produce systematically, a condition of general prosperity. In all times, and in all countries, individuals have been enriched through monopolies, but the deliberate plan of a whole nation to become prosperous, is so new that middle aged men may easily remember the most conspicuous of such efforts.

The centennial exposition of 1876 was the moving cause of the marvelous industrial development of Germany. When the German commissioner cabled to Bismarck, "Our goods are cheap, but wretched," every one of the states constituting the German empire, began an educational campaign which revolutionized German industries, produced German prosperity, and seems likely, by conspicuous example, to bring about the same results in other nations, if for no better reason than for self protection.

I may seem unwarranted in drawing the conclusion that the great industrial prosperity of Germany is due wholly to industrial education, because it may be pointed out that the United States has enjoyed a period of such prosperity marvelously great

without any such general system of industrial education. But we are beginning to realize that our prosperous condition has been brought about not so much by deliberate planning and concerted effort as by use of our vast natural resources, unlimited supply of cheap materials, imported skilled labor, and artificial trade conditions produced by tariff. We are beginning to discover that the demand for skilled labor is greater than the supply, that the supply of skilled labor must be created at home, that wanton waste of natural resources must be checked. The representatives of German industry who visited the St. Louis exposition, said that German manufacturers had nothing to fear from American competition, because American methods of production were wasteful, their skilled artisans few, and means of producing them were wanting.

It is not at all pessimistic to prophesy that the continued prosperity of the United States can only be maintained by educating the necessary supply of skilled labor, rather than by putting dependence upon the importation of such labor, the supply of which is practically cut off through its absorption by the countries which have realized sooner than we the same necessity. (Unskilled labor is likely to come to our shores in such quantities as may be demanded.) In a few places in our country inspired philanthropists have endowed institutions to promote industrial education, but these are so few as to be totally unable to supply teachers for any considerable number of such schools.

An excellent summary of our situation may be found in the report of Professor Shick, one of the

Royal Prussian Industrial Commissioners of 1904, who came to this country to study American education at the time of the St. Louis Exposition. It is as follows: "How long the superiority of our (German) industrial art instruction, over that of the Americans, will continue, it is impossible to say. The extraordinary energy of the Americans, their practical sense, the well known generosity of their rich citizens, and the wealth of the communities, justify the prophecy that when once the deficiencies are recognized they will not rest until they have reached the perfection of Europe also in industrial education." This comment was made after his description of Pratt, Drexel, and Armour Institutes.

We have needed to be told as plainly as the Germans have told us that we are resting industrially on unsafe ground. This ground is a feeling of contented certainty that everything American is necessarily superior to everything else. We certainly have been relying as they have told us, "on a general and more or less superficial education, together with national adaptation." However much we may still maintain that an American by natural adaptability, without special training, has competed successfully with all others, we must realize sooner or later that this is merely a form of national egotism, and that success in the long run must depend upon the best possible training of individuals in industrial and commercial affairs. I believe that educators have recognized this without being willing to admit it, for fear, if we enter upon a comprehensive system of industrial education, that the effect will be nar-

rowing, and we shall separate our people into classes and masses.

No one considers it narrowing to a prospective lawyer or doctor, or other professional man, to spend several years in special preparation for his life work, however much or little general education he may have. At any rate, the esteem in which the professions are held is in exact proportion to the qualifications of the majority of their members. We prefer to entrust our bodies and our property to the care of the best trained men. The great majority of all civilized populations must occupy themselves with the manufacture and handling of material things. That they be well made and properly handled is quite as important as is a scientific comprehension of them. It is no more important that a physician may know in every minute phase the far reaching results of a particular drug than that laborers all along the line from collector or planter, through mill and factory, to dispenser and salesman, may each know and do well his own part. Carelessness and ignorance anywhere may neutralize the ablest efforts of the best trained scientist. . The scholarship and skill of a great physician may be easily brought to nothing by the ignorance of a drug clerk. It is just here that American education is at fault. We expect and demand of leaders the highest ability and training, and do not supply equally well trained assistants in every department of an enterprise.

That special industrial education is necessary to produce efficiency of individuals needs no further demonstration to-day; that general industrial edu-

cation improves the efficiency of a whole population, has been fully demonstrated in Germany, and partially demonstrated in other European countries. Outside of Germany what can better illustrate the effect of industrial schools on the industrial prosperity of a country than the case of Denmark? In the last thirty years Denmark has risen from almost the lowest to the highest place agriculturally among the countries of Europe. What is offered to account for this? In a territory equalling about one-half the state of Maine, there are an agricultural college and twenty-one allied agricultural schools having an attendance of 4,000 students. In addition to these, there are seventy-eight people's high schools in which agriculture is taught, with an attendance of 6,000. One of the direct results is that the dairy products of Denmark have a world wide reputation.

You all recognize the direct influence of the few agricultural schools of this country. From the great advance in method of work, and in the resulting prosperity in certain communities, is there not every reason to believe that this whole nation would leap forward agriculturally as has Denmark if we were as well provided with instruction in proportion to our population as is Denmark?

In a general way the German commissioners knew that special schools under government direction had existed in France ever since their establishment for the teaching of art industries by Colbert, Louis XIV's Minister of Finance. They had never realized, however, the far reaching results of this careful training in the economic prosperity

of the country until the great Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876 brought before their envious eyes the fact that France was sending out manufactured products, the quality of which Germany could not hope to equal under the then present conditions. The keen commissioners saw the situation at a glance. The message to Bismarck, already mentioned, humiliating as it was, acted as a stimulus rather than as a check to the thorough going Germans. Germany lost no time in organizing a campaign for the systematic industrial education of its people. What France had done in the development of textiles and ceramics, Germany proposed to do along all lines of technical instruction. The national love for system and thoroughness showed itself in the integrated organization of schools destined to supply trained workers ready to fill every industrial demand from lowest to highest.

Immediately after the Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, all the states of the new German empire began to build up a complete system of education on industrial lines. As Prussia's political and military disgrace at the time of Napoleon I had been turned into triumph in the time of Napoleon III, through the labor of "the schoolmaster," Prussia's system of general education now served as a model for every one of the German states in wiping out commercial inferiority through organizing industrial schools. Within a brief period results were produced little less than marvelous. There were exported from Germany to six foreign countries, from 1880 to 1884, manufactured articles to the value of 201 million marks annually; and within

ten years, to the value of 405 million marks annually. The World's Fair in Chicago, in 1893, revealed the fact that Germany had already, through little more than a decade of industrial education, taken a place in the front rank of industrial nations.

The official investigation by the German officials in the late seventies into the causes of the inferiority of German goods, proved that (1) the technical knowledge which was lacking among the laborers could be supplied by schools; (2) that special excellence in any branch of industry is a result of both technical schooling and acquired skill. Definite instances were cited to prove this.

The commissioners found that the recognized excellence of the French in textile industries and other art industries were not owing to great innate talents of French laborers alone, but to thorough schooling in designing and manual labor.

To provide for thoroughness at every step, institutions of three grades were established. First, elementary industrial schools for the mass of laboring people; next, secondary industrial schools to prepare foremen and designers; and last, higher institutions like polytechnic and art schools, to train engineers and leaders in the industries. The lower grades of these schools were made especially to meet the needs of local communities, so that the industrial features especially distinguishing the communities should have the leading place. Through this system, industries which had been characteristic of certain localities took on new life, the products becoming superior in quality and increased in quantity, the whole community living on a

higher plane. Local conditions were given all possible consideration in all parts of the country, just as local conditions and the physical contour of Switzerland have influenced industry and education there.

Switzerland has been limited by nature to a small number of industries. Agriculture, of course, could never be a leading occupation in this mountainous country. Yet not only have certain industries been characteristic for a long period, but other new ones have been introduced which have brought about prosperity in hitherto impoverished communities. Special state schools, particularly bearing on the watch industry, began as early as the eighteenth century. Other schools where artistic education, devoted especially to the art of decorating, is given, now constitute a very important feature of the watch industry.

More humble in their first origin, but much more illustrative of the practical results of industrial education, are the Swiss straw plaiting schools which have developed a new industry, commanding markets in all parts of the world. Through this means, some of the poorest portions of the country have become well-to-do, and little hamlets, too small to be named in the guide book, have within a few years, through this trade, become towns of ten thousand inhabitants. Higher instruction in this particular branch consists in the cultivation and acclimatization of various kinds of foreign grasses which furnish straw from the coarsest to the finest qualities.

In our own country we may find localities which

have been improved industrially through schools which have been established by certain philanthropists or municipalities. But our territory is so large, and the number of schools so few, as compared with the population, that for the present our illustrations must mostly be drawn from foreign countries. We may perhaps cite a single instance in this country where education for industrial work has brought about prosperity and independence to a considerable number of people. I refer to the industries connected with the Newcomb Art School, a part of Tulane University, New Orleans. This Art School has developed a pottery industry, not to mention its other industries as yet not so well known, which is making fame for itself throughout the world. It began without capital or endowment. The persistence of individual professors connected with Tulane University, notably Ellsworth Woodward, formerly of Providence, R. I., resulted in the building, less than twenty years ago, of a very small pottery. A considerable number of women of New Orleans, who, through the changed conditions since the Civil War, were unable to earn a living otherwise, are not only enabled through their training in industrial art in connection with this pottery, to maintain themselves independently, but are attracting attention everywhere; their work has been awarded medals at all recent expositions in this country and abroad.

When it is plainly demonstrated that countries with interior physical resources, as Denmark and Germany may, by an efficient system of industrial education, raise themselves in a score of years to

compete successfully with other nations which have in a practical way been pre-eminent for centuries, need there be any doubt that the United States, which has a superabundance of natural resources, could, by the same means, raise itself to a position which could not be effectively assailed by any countries as yet competing largely in the world's markets?

When we make a list of what has been done toward technical and industrial education in the United States in the past forty years, it would seem that much has been accomplished. We have no reason to be discouraged. Yet there is not as much effected in comparison with our territory and population, as was achieved by Germany and France before they commenced the organized campaign of industrial education a quarter of a century ago.

What we must do as a people is to drop forever all feeling that everything American is necessarily good because it is American; that if we would ever maintain the position relative to other commercial and industrial nations, which we have reached by reason of exploiting and waste of natural resources, we must immediately enter energetically upon active strife along the same educational lines as our competitors, and that not alone to maintain commercial rank but to develop what as a people we have not now, and the Germans have, "the capacity for taking pains." Too much cannot be said on this point. It is characteristically American to desire to do great things, to move rapidly and skip intervening steps. It is altogether

too uncommon to find an American laborer who will give attention to minute details and take pains in minor matters. In our schools and colleges it is perfectly obvious that foreign pupils and students surpass our own in the minutae. We probably have the right to claim that no nation has so many men of great wealth who are pleased to endow or maintain educational institutions of all kinds. We have needed such institutes as Pratt, Drexel, and Lewis, to show us at home, what foreigners would show us if we were willing to see, that we must turn our attention to industrial education. But we cannot and must not depend upon chance philanthropy, however great or frequent. Our system must be organized and supported by state and nation as comprehensively and thoroughly as any government department or bureau.

There should be in our national government a ministry of education instead of a mere bureau under the Department of the Interior. It is, of course, quite right that there should be a ministry of war, but how absurd that by the side of this thoroughly organized department there should not be as thoroughly organized a department of education. Through such a department all existing educational enterprises, and a new efficient system of industrial education could be co-ordinated.

General industrial education would create the strongest possible tendency against industrial monopolies, and toward the general creation and distribution of wealth which constitutes so great a part of national prosperity.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE AND IS BEING
DONE IN NEW ENGLAND.PRIN. WILLIS O. SMITH,
LANCASTER, N. H.

In attempting to collect information from various school officials relative to the status of industrial education in the several New England states, it at once became apparent that there was no definite, generally accepted understanding of the expression, industrial education. To one it meant manual training and nothing else, to another about everything except manual training, to still another chiefly the busy work of the kindergarten, primary, and grades, to yet another it seemed to mean mechanic and domestic arts, to another only trade and vocational schools, and to others, various combinations of these units, until it seemed that the principle of permutation and combination could no longer be successfully applied to the term industrial education.

Looking for a definition by those having authority, I found the same diversity of opinion—

Hon. Payson E. Smith, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Maine, defines industrial education as training for the trades, and states that it supplements the common school course in the same sense as the high school or college courses, but has no place in it.

Former United States Commissioner of Education—Hon. W. T. Harris states that industrial education has no well defined limits, but ranges over

all the ground between manual training proper on the one hand, and purely trade instruction by apprenticeship in commercial shops on the other, while Hon. John T. Prince, Agent of the Massachusetts State Board, would make industrial education cover all that is done in the school or elsewhere to promote industrial efficiency and a true spirit of service.

While it may seem presumptuous to suggest, yet it would appear to be of no small value if this occasion should lead to a clarification of terms, a clearer conception of the exact meaning of industrial education, and to some organized attempt on the part of this association to formulate a definition which would be acceptable to its members and to the educational world. However, in order to have a definite basis for this discussion, and further to render the data obtained fairly representative of the present conditions, I shall use the last definition as the most comprehensive and best suited to my purpose, namely everything that is done in the schools or elsewhere to promote industrial efficiency and a true spirit of service, in short, anything which "puts the whole boy to school."

We shall undoubtedly get a better idea of what has been done and is being done in industrial education in New England if we remember that less than thirty years ago not a school for manual training existed in the United States. (I select manual training as one of the typical units of industrial education for purposes of statistics and comparison.) This branch of industrial education may fairly be said to have originated about 1870-80 and

for two reasons, first, a growing desire and a widespread demand in America for an opportunity for our boys and girls to acquire the arts of the mechanic and craftsman while avoiding the narrowing, unscholarly atmosphere of the trade school, and second, the exhibit at the Centennial exposition at Philadelphia in 1876 by the Imperial School at Moscow of a method of tool instruction and construction designed for a six years' course by Prof. Victor Della-Vos of the imperial school. The St. Louis Manual Training school was opened in September, 1880, as a school of secondary grade. This was the first public manual training school in the United States, and soon attracted wide attention from educators at home and abroad. The Baltimore Manual Training school opened in 1883; the Chicago Manual Training school in 1884; the Toledo Manual Training school the same year; the Central Manual Training school in Philadelphia in 1885 and then the movement became general all along the line.

The principal means by which industrial training is carried on in New England are three in number and will be noticed in the following order: first, Public Schools; second, Private and Endowed Schools; third, Normal Schools.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The latest report of the United States Commissioner of Education, while probably not accurate in all details, owing to insufficient data, is nevertheless useful for the sake of comparison. From this report it appears that in 1890 the number of

manual training schools in cities of 4,000 population or over in New England, was as follows:

Maine	0
New Hampshire	1
Vermont	1
Massachusetts	5
Rhode Island	0
Connecticut	1
	—
Total	8

In 1906.

Maine	5
New Hampshire	4
Vermont	2
Massachusetts	59
Rhode Island	3
Connecticut	10
	—
Total	83

Or an increase of about 1,000 percent. in sixteen years.

The South Atlantic States had in 1890 three Manual Training Schools; in 1906 twenty-two. The South Central States in the same period had increased from one to forty-four. The Western division from none to thirty-two, and we find that only in the North Central division, including the great states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Mississippi, North and South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas, has New England been surpassed in number or growth of

Industrial Schools. This last mentioned group had in 1890 ten Manual Training schools; in 1906 two hundred and thirty-eight, or an increase of over 2,000 percent.

Looking now more closely at industrial education in the public schools of New England as gathered from the special reports received, we find that Massachusetts leads the list in the quantity, and perhaps the quality, of the work done. In this state all cities of 20,000 population or over are required by law to give instruction in Manual Training in both Elementary and the High schools. The following cities have complied with this provision either wholly or in part:—Boston, Brockton, Brookline, Cambridge, Chelsea, Fall River, Fitchburg, Haverhill, Holyoke, Lawrence, Lowell, Lynn, Malden, New Bedford, Newton, North Adams, Quincy, Salem, Somerville, Springfield, Taunton, Waltham and Worcester. Besides these there are 60 cities and towns which voluntarily maintain some form of industrial training consisting chiefly of full courses in either cookery, sewing, agriculture, modelling, wood-work, machine-shop practice, and weaving or combinations of these.

In New Hampshire the schools of Berlin, Concord, Keene, Lebanon, Manchester, Portsmouth, Gilmanton Academy and North-wood Academy give excellent instruction in the grades, the high school, or both, in paper cutting, basketry, raffia, carpentry, sewing, cooking, school-gardening, agriculture, mechanic and domestic arts. It is probably safe to say that in all of the better class of

schools in the state some form of paper cutting, raffia, decorative and industrial drawing, is found.

In Maine the legislature of 1901 gave recognition to the need of Manual Training in that state by passing an act permitting and encouraging its adoption by the public schools. In 1904 Manual Training in all its branches was introduced into the Bangor schools. Similar training is now given in the schools of Bath, Lewiston, Portland and Westbrook.

In Vermont the schools of Montpelier, Rutland and St. Johnsbury offer courses in Manual Training and in many of the rural schools something of this nature is attempted and much more promised for another year.

In Rhode Island excellent Manual Training schools are maintained in the cities of Newport, Providence and Woonsocket.

Connecticut gives industrial training in the schools of Bristol, Derby, Manchester, South Manchester, Naugatuck, New Haven, New London, Norwich, and Rockville.

A summary of the schools offering industrial training at present is as follows:

Maine	5
New Hampshire	9
Vermont	3
Massachusetts	83
Rhode Island	3
Connecticut	9
<hr/>	
Total	112

This does not include all that is being done in industrial education throughout the public schools of the several states, for space does not permit a detailed enumeration of the work in paper, clay, raffia, drawing, and gardening, done in the many smaller schools of this division.

PRIVATE OR ENDOWED SCHOOLS.

Aside from the strictly public schools, there are various technical and industrial schools in New England, which are magnificently equipped and doing splendid work in industrial training. Notable among these are the textile schools at Fall River, New Bedford, and Lowell, the last mentioned having a more complete and varied equipment than any similar school in America or Europe, and a registration of over 600 pupils. In these schools comprehensive courses are given in cotton manufacture, wool manufacture, textile design, chemistry and dyeing and textile engineering.

Massachusetts also has other industrial schools located as follows, in Boston:

Boston Asylum and Farm School.

Eric Pape's School of Art.

Hebrew Industrial School.

The Massachusetts Charitable Mechanic Association.

The Massachusetts Normal Art School.

The MacDowell Millinery and Dressmaking School.

The Mechanics' Art High School.

North Bennet Street Industrial School.

North End Union.

School of Domestic Science.

School of the Museum of Fine Arts.

In Cambridge the Rindge Manual Training School.

In Roxbury, the South End Industrial School.

In Springfield, the Evening School of Trades and the Technical High School.

In Worcester, the Oread Institute of Domestic Science.

In Connecticut.

The Bridgeport Trade School and Institute.

The Hillyer Institute.

The School of Horticulture.

The Watkinson Asylum and Farm School.

The Boardman Manual Training High School.

The Waterbury Industrial School.

In New Hampshire.

At Manchester, The Institute of Arts and Sciences.

In Rhode Island.

At Newport, the Townshend Industrial School and Sayers School.

At Providence, The Technical High School, and Tyler School.

The work in these schools covers the subjects of sewing, dressmaking, millinery, cooking, laundering, household management, drawing, modelling, designing, woodturning, carving, carpentering, patternmaking, forging, moulding, vise-work, machine-

shop work, steam-fitting, plumbing, work in physical and chemical laboratories, applied electricity, hand and power weaving, carding, spinning, designing fabrics, dyeing, knitting, mill calculations, farm and garden work, printing, shoemaking, basket-making, feather work, stained glass work, book covers and brick-laying.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

As might naturally be expected some of the best work in industrial training is being done in the model and practice schools connected with the State Normal Schools, of which New England has 27. In most of these some kind of instruction in industrial education is given. This work was introduced into the Maine Normal Schools at the beginning of the present school year and will no doubt prove to be here as elsewhere, one of the best means toward bringing about a rapid and general adoption of industrial training throughout the state.

The work in most of the normal schools is carefully planned for all grades of the elementary schools, as a means of training for students in the Normal schools. It is, therefore, very important work, since it serves as a model for superintendent and teachers in general, and because it is the kind of work which present teachers in training will be likely to carry on in their schools.

Some of the most desirable objects to be attained in these schools are the following:

"To give the pupil the broadest possible knowledge of tools and materials, which shall not only

afford manual and mental activity, but shall also by being closely related to the child's interests in and out of school, reveal to him typical phases of the industrial life about him, cultivate aesthetic taste, and afford large opportunity for self-expression and individual growth.

"To by the means of establishing consciously or subconsciously a love and respect for honest toil and useful labor.

"To show the value of the three R's, and therefore serve as a basis for reasonable correlation.

"To teach social responsibility and so to increase the child's interest and share in home duties.

"To provide industrial work based upon the theory that the construction of every object should result if possible from a motive that originates with the child in consequence of a recognized need of the individual, the home, or the school."

The various phases of the work done in most of the schools may be summed up as clay work, paper folding and cutting, weaving, woodwork, metal work and gardening.

In one of the schools I notice that the boys of the upper grades in wood-working are banded together into a manufacturing concern and market their products, which are real, useful, salable articles.

In addition to the public, private, and normal schools already noticed, there are other schools offering industrial training, which while difficult to classify, should not go unmentioned. Chief among these are the Rhode Island School of Design at Providence. The Wells Memorial Institute at Bos-

ton, the Waltham Horological School at Waltham, and various technical colleges, such as Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Simmons College, the engineering and scientific departments of the 31 colleges conferring degrees in New England, the State Agricultural Colleges, and various Christian and benevolent associations, in most of which excellent work, either in elementary or advanced industrial education, is given.

Splendid as is the equipment already provided, yet the supply has not kept pace with the demand, and we find the experiment being tried in the Boston schools of allowing pupils attending school where no industrial training is given, to spend one hour a day in some conveniently located Manual Training School, with the provision, that the work in the regular studies be not neglected. While the experiment is still young, yet it is evident from the report that "the pupils are immensely interested in their work, that they are becoming skilled in remunerative service, that their other studies are not seriously neglected, and that the training in industrial work does not create in them an undue desire to leave their studies and go to work at too early an age."

The greatest need, however, of industrial education at present, does not lie in the city schools, which are for the most part immensely well equipped with buildings, apparatus and teaching force, but in the smaller town or rural schools where often little or nothing is attempted in industrial work.

I received a report of the work done in one such small school which is so encouraging in showing what is actually being done in some of the smaller schools, and so suggestive of what might easily be done in all of them, that I will quote the substance of it.

The school is situated at Petersham, Massachusetts, the population of which is 855 and the assessed valuation \$676,287. There are 140 children between the ages of 5 and 15, about 125 of which attend school at a central building, a number are transferred at public expense. The school house is a modern, well lighted, heated and ventilated building, containing four class rooms, a recitation room, an assembly hall, and rooms fitted up for cooking, lunch and recreation purposes. A high school uses one room and three grades occupy each of the other class rooms. The high school complies with the Massachusetts requirements and receives state aid, as it has "two teachers of competent ability and good morals," continues for forty weeks of the year, has suitable apparatus for teaching the sciences, and prepares students for the higher institutions of learning. The principal has been trained to teach agriculture and the assistant to teach domestic science.

The nature teaching in all the grades is simple, definite, accurate, and directly related to the lives of the children. The aim is to develop a love for nature, to open the eyes of the pupils to the beauty of their surroundings and thus to increase their capacity for enjoyment.

The older pupils study soils, the kind of soil

needed for certain crops, the means of fertilizing the soil, the effect of rotation of crops, the selection of seed, the plant life of the town, insect pests and local problems, including a simple system of farm accounts.

A greenhouse built by the boys is a laboratory for plant breeding and culture. The cost of the material was about \$120. The pupils are taught the care and management of a greenhouse, of hot beds and cold frames. This is a vocation in itself. The cultivation of greenhouse flowers and plants for resetting may be made profitable in the urban sections, and the raising of green house vegetables and small fruit may be made lucrative anywhere in the state. The pupils of this school conducted a large school garden. They raised and sold 140 bushels of potatoes and a variety of vegetables. This gave the pupils an interest in and an elementary knowledge of market gardening, the possibilities of which are not generally understood.

The boys at Petersham have been taught to prune, bud, graft and spray the orchard. They have read government reports, text-books and all the available material bearing on these processes, thus supplementing their own practice with the experience of the world in these matters.

A Babcock tester has been used in the school. Any milk brought to the school is tested for butter fats and solids. The machine presents many interesting problems to the student. The chemical action of the sulphuric acid on the milk, the centrifugal force which separates the fat by throwing the

heavier parts outward, the relative specific gravities shown in the floating of the butter fat, the gearing for speed, and the principles involved in the construction of the machine offer opportunities for skillful teaching and thoughtful study. The chief value of the Babcock tester, however, is in detecting and weeding out the poor cows. The machine in a size suitable for school use costs \$5.00 and might well be added to the equipment of most high schools, especially in a dairying section.

The boys in Petersham found the pine seed in the cones. They have learned how to plant that seed, reset the little pines and start the forests in the rugged lands which are unfit for cultivation.

As this school develops it is designed to teach the boys the use and care of tools, and to fit them to do much of the repair and construction work on the farm. They will be taught to repair harnesses, to work in wood, to weld iron and to temper steel. The equipment of this work will be inexpensive. A small forge and anvil can be placed in the basement. Work of this kind has already been started. It is practicable to work in wood, leather, metal, and paint in any high school.

The girls have courses in cooking, sewing, laundry work and care of the house, and all this note in a school of one room and two teachers.

At Petersham the industrial subjects have not interfered with the academic work of the high school. The last hour and twenty minutes is given to industrial teaching. The academic work has not been slighted. The two have gone hand in hand, each has helped the other.

The standard of the written English of the school has been much above that of the ordinary high school, for the students have written on "The Milk Industry," "Farm Machinery," "The Call to the Farm," "Corn," and other topics in which they were interested and of which they possessed a first-hand knowledge, founded on their own investigations.

It is too early to attempt to tabulate the result of the Petersham experiment. The school is only a year and a half old. It is evident even now however:

First, that unusual interest is felt in the school by pupils, parents, and the public. This interest has been manifested in the contribution of \$120 for a greenhouse, and \$96 for the equipment of a cooking department. Nearly \$600 has been given to the school for industrial purposes.

Second, that a number of pupils between the ages of fourteen and eighteen are now attending the school who would not be sufficiently interested to stay in the ordinary high school. They think they are getting something out of the school to increase their earning capacity. The vocational spirit has been aroused. These pupils attending school because of the industrial teaching, are getting good courses in English, science, mathematics and history.

Third, that by introducing the intellectual element in industry, farming has ceased to be looked upon as degrading and has become in the minds of the students a fascinating and delightful occupation.

They are gaining faith in farming as a business. Instead of trying to get away from the old farm as soon as possible they are planning improvements and looking forward to a happy, prosperous life in the home community.

Fourth, that the attitude toward manual labor is changing. The boys built the greenhouse themselves. There was no talk about the dignity of labor, but they put on their overalls, rolled up their sleeves, dug stones, threw out the earth, and did practically all the work of construction.

Fifth, that the Petersham experiment has proved that it is possible in the public schools, without striking out anything good in them, to give a vast amount of usable knowledge relating to industry, and to train to some degree of skill in using this knowledge.

Finally, in order to present some basis for contrast and comparison, allow me very briefly to sketch the status of industrial education in Germany, the home of the industrial and trade school.

In Saxony, according to the latest reports, there are 287 industrial schools, or one to every 14,000 inhabitants. The schools are divided as follows: Twelve advanced industrial schools, giving full courses in industry, architecture, machine construction, dyeing and industrial drawing, together with a liberal academic instruction.

One hundred and fifty special industrial schools training young men to become expert workmen in the following trades and industries:

Architects	Painters
Barbers	Musicians
Tinmen	Millers
Brewers	Beadgoods
Printers	Locksmiths
Bookbinders	Tailors
Decorators	Chimney Builders
Druggists	Penmen
Butchers	Shoemakers
Waiters	Toymakers
Tanners	Lacemakers
Firemen	Paperhangers
Woodcarvers	Watchmakers
Confectioners	Weavers

Twenty-one industrial schools for women, girls and children—nineteen occupied with general industries and two with lacemaking alone.

Thirty-two industrial schools for drawing and painting, eighteen of which are connected with as many public schools throughout the country.

Forty-four industrial primary or continuation schools. These are intended to give boys and girls who have completed the public school course a chance to prepare themselves in a general way for some trade or industry without the express intention of following the same.

In 1882 there were only 22 industrial schools in Saxony; to-day there are 287. This increase tells its own story.

In other parts of the German empire we note the same remarkable growth in the number of industrial and trade schools. The Crefeld Textile School

is one of the best in Germany. Splendid industrial schools are also situated at Barmen, Spremburg, and Guben.

In Iserlohn is a fine industrial school for the metal and bronze industry of that city and vicinity, where some fifteen of the leading manufacturers consented to furnish all the raw material needed in the schools for five years.

Industrial schools for basketry, building and architectural purposes exist at Heinsburg, Hildesheim, Siegen, Breslau, Sulza, Hoxter, and Idstein, while the best schools in this line are probably found in Berlin and Holzmünden. These schools are for the most part under the supervision of the state and receive aid therefrom.

The Prussian state railways have also established large industrial schools at Elberfeld, Berlin, Königsberg, Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Potsdam, Holberstadt, Breslau, and many other cities for the purpose of teaching apprentices every subject which has anything to do with the building or repairing of railway cars, etc.

In Wurtemberg there are schools in Stuttgart and Pfozheim for jewelry, musical instruments and weaving—many of them with well equipped libraries. Heidesheim has a weaver's school. Sindelfingen a school for the linen industry, Rottenberg a school for wood carvers, Geislingen one for engravers, while Heilbronn and Bieberach have schools for the cheap gold and silver plated industries in those localities.

In Baden there is a trade school in almost every city between Heidelberg and the Lake of Constance.

Hessen can boast the fact that there is not a single village, no matter how small, in the whole country which does not possess an industrial school of some kind.

These schools are all under the direction of the Minister of the Interior and the Bureau of Commerce keeps in close touch with their needs and growth.

That the value of these schools is fully appreciated by the state, city and trade corporations is readily seen from the fact that the attendance at these schools for at least some part of the school course has recently been made compulsory.

This brief outline will serve to show the great interest manifested in Germany in industrial education and indicates that the whole empire will soon be thickly dotted with industrial and trade schools, all equally as efficient as those at present in Saxony.

Similar industrial schools are now found in large numbers in Italy, Holland, Russia, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland, Austria, France and Japan, while England is just realizing the need of such schools in her empire.

While New England cannot as yet compete with European countries in the quantity of industrial education offered, I feel confident from the data obtained that we are giving our school children a broad industrial training, that we are avoiding the dangers of too early specialization, that excellent work is being done in many of the city schools, that much creditable work is and can be done in the rural schools, that the idea of industrial training

is rapidly permeating all of our educational forces, and that the day is not far distant when the proper balance will be struck between mental and manual training, between the liberal and mechanic arts, and we shall learn how to deal simultaneously with all the latent possibilities of our boys and girls.

THE NEED OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND ITS METHODS—FROM A BUSI- NESS MAN'S POINT OF VIEW.

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The term "Industrial Education" signifies an education for a specific purpose. Does the need for this specialized effort exist to a sufficient degree to warrant such differentiation in education?

All education in its final analysis aims to develop men and women who can carry on effectively the work of the world. This work consists chiefly of the activities connected with commerce and industry, including in the latter the great occupation of agriculture; to a smaller extent, it is concerned with the activities in the various professions. Public education, therefore, by providing boys and girls with such an educational equipment as will correspond to the demands which commerce and industry make upon their new recruits, will deal effec-

tively with the great majority. The few, however, who eventually go into the professions of life will be benefitted by some sort of industrial training, in that it will give them a more sympathetic understanding of life's work and of the needs and aspirations of the people with whom they will come in contact as teachers and leaders.

The contention that commerce and industry absorb the activities of most of our people is fully sustained by a consideration of our public school statistics, according to which the great majority of the children are deprived of a complete elementary school education, since they drop out of the public school system before graduating from the grammar schools. The professions in the main are closed to them and they find, as they must, their means of livelihood in the diversified avenues of commerce and industry. The statistics of one school system may suffice to bear out this statement. Information recently received from the superintendent of schools of Boston indicates that less than one-third of all boys—namely 2,350 out of 7,158—who enter the public schools graduate from the grammar schools, and that less than one out of every twenty-four boys—namely 293 out of 7,158—completes the course in the secondary schools of that city. These are the figures of a school system that probably has as strong a hold on the children as any other city school system in the country. In the face of such facts, does it not become the chief concern of the public schools to minister to the welfare of this appalling majority which comprises the commercial and industrial

army of the country? Is there not a need then for a type of public education that will recognize these facts and give the children in the elementary schools some definite industrial knowledge that will enable them to enter upon life's work with some adequate preparation? That the public schools are beginning to recognize this fact more fully cannot be doubted, for it is evident that the problem of special training for the great mass of productive workers is one of the absorbing educational topics before the country to-day.

Industrial education is a training in industrial work. Aside from the pedagogical consideration, the problem presents two other sides: that of the employer and of the employee. It concerns the former in his need for obtaining an adequate supply of efficient workmen; and it affects the latter in that it elevates his industrial status. A corps of efficient workers will increase the probability of success and profit in a business, and it is for profit that an employer goes into business; an increased industrial intelligence will place employees in better and more lucrative positions, and good wages is their main object. The aims of the employer and employee, therefore, point to the same end, and if industrial education can further the aim of either, it stands to reason that the problem of industrial education is after all a common one.

From the manufacturer's standpoint, it does not matter whether industrial education is administered effectively through public or private institutions for industrial training, or through apprenticeships. All these methods will benefit the manufacturer by

providing him with a larger supply of skilled workmen of a kind that is needed in our complicated modern industrial system. The enormous expansion of American industries has called into action a vast army of workmen, and the methods of specialization quite universally adopted in recent years have permitted the employment of large numbers of untrained and uneducated employees. It becomes a necessity, therefore, to develop a body of artisans who combine with skill in any one trade or part thereof a comprehensive grasp of the situation beyond the particular work upon which they may be employed. Complicated specializing machinery, furthermore, has come into such extensive use that it calls for a large number of mechanics of all-round skill, capable of operating and repairing such machinery or providing it with auxiliary tool equipments for the performance of repetition work on a large scale. That our present educational system has not taken sufficient cognizance of these demands of modern industries is admitted by all concerned. Manufacturers quite unanimously agree to this statement; educational experts are eagerly trying to adjust the educational system to the industrial needs; and the public at large is keenly alive to the importance of the situation.

Years ago, when our industrial activities were in the hands of many manufacturers who, in almost every instance, worked at the bench, sometimes single handed and sometimes assisted by a few co-workers, they considered it one of their functions to create not only the material product, but also the skilled men who were to produce the

finished article. At that time, a boy was apprenticed to a journeyman, who, during a term of years, taught that boy the trade which he, himself, practiced in all its details. No artisan was recognized as such unless he had served an apprenticeship as described. Sometimes two or even three boys were apprenticed to a journeyman. Thus was the trade carried on and developed from one generation to another, and the means served the end well. As industries grew, economic conditions necessitated the employment of larger numbers of men by a few employers; a greater part of the population drifted into industrial service, and it was, therefore, but natural that the public educational system should concern itself with these new conditions. Where, heretofore, public education had laid emphasis on preparation for the professions which concerned only the few, it now turned in the direction of preparing the masses for practical work.

In what specific ways does the public school system fail in its aim to benefit the masses and what may be the remedial action? I wish to answer this question in the light of an experience of many years with several thousand boys who have selected the mechanical industries as their initial stage of earning a livelihood, and especially with reference to my close observation of boys who are being trained for future mechanics through an efficient and broad-gauged apprenticeship system. Originally this system aimed to instruct the apprentices in the specific processes of the trade and to give them additional instruction in the correlated science of mechanical drawing and mechanics. It soon developed, how-

ever, that the educational foundation of these boys was not sufficiently substantial and well-anchored to build on it in a safe and satisfactory manner. It became necessary, therefore, to incorporate into the apprenticeship system a school in which the elementary processes of arithmetic, algebra and geometry might be clinched more firmly, by reviewing these subjects in their application to concrete examples, before vocational studies could be taken up to advantage. To increase the boy's knowledge of these public school subjects was not the main object of the review, for, having left school but recently, the boy's memory usually served him well in reciting the facts learned in school; it rather aimed at the development of the boy's thinking and reasoning faculties, inasmuch as most boys were found to be unable to apply the acquired facts to the common occurrences of practical work. A question as to the cubical contents of a cylinder of given diameter and length would usually elicit the correct answer, for this was an appeal to the boy's memory alone. The apprentice was often phased, however, if this identical problem was worded so as to veil the rule by which the answer was to be found. Every-day factory life presents a problem like the following: "How many pounds of steel rod would it take to produce 12 pins, each to be one-half inch in diameter and 3 inches long, if these pins are to be cut from a half-inch rod with a cutting off tool which would waste 1-16" between two pins?" The boy does not usually comprehend, however, the solution of the problem, which is based simply on the figuring of the cubical contents

of a cylinder of a given diameter, whose length is equal to the sum of a number of stated dimensions.

If the aim of teaching is merely to transmit knowledge to the boy, but little fault can be found with the public schools; the youngster of 14 has acquired a vast amount of information; his knowledge of facts extends over a large area, possibly too large for the boy's benefit. If, on the other hand, the main effort of education is to arouse the dormant power of reasoning and independent thinking in the child, so that he may through this power, apply his knowledge and thereby acquire new knowledge, then I fear the school has not succeeded in the full realization of this aim. Those who employ boys as they leave the public schools, are quite unanimous in their criticism that public education has failed to teach the boys how to think and how to apply knowledge to specific problems. Were it not for this failure in early life and the unfortunate lack of subsequent corrective education in our present social state, many who now lead a monotonous existence in the lower strata of industrial life would rise to positions of greater usefulness and earning capacity with, consequently, a larger share of the luxuries of life.

There are many ways in which the teacher can develop and foster the power of independent thinking, which is the foundation stone of a man's success, whatever his calling may be. Instead of telling the boy the specific weight of cast iron, give him a short bar and a pair of scales, and let him find the weight of it and divide it by the cubic inches that his knowledge of geometry will allow

him to compute. Instead of requiring the pupil to memorize the law that governs the action of a lever, give him a lever with a movable fulcrum on a graded scale, and let him by repeated operations with varying weights and positions of the fulcrum discover the law for himself. Tell him of some of the every day occurrences of life, the truth of which he does not question, the reason for which he does not know because he has never inquired into it, and lead him step by step to discover the causes of these visible effects. You will then have taught him to reason from effect to cause, which is the necessary preparation for reasoning from cause to effect, for "looking ahead," as we express it in commercial language. Some teachers proceed along such lines; many evidently do not; for only a few boys with whom we come in contact seem to have acquired the habit of finding out things for themselves.

The public school system can further greatly help that large number who later drift into industrial life, by teaching them at an early age to appreciate manual work and to see its significance and opportunity. Indeed, in this way, the teacher can lead boys who are predestined by nature for manual work into such avenues of activity, rather than to encourage them to seek other occupations for which they are not fitted, but into which they drift on account of their indifference toward, if not their decided contempt for, the manual trades. It was a far-sighted suggestion that President Eliot made at Chicago last January, when he spoke of the new function of the teacher in sorting the pupils, in con-

junction with the parents, according to their natural abilities and directing them into the avenues of their special fitness.

Our educational system evidently has not taken full cognizance of the tremendous change in our social life in the last 25 years, which has made industry one of the most important activities of the American people, and has raised the industrial worker to a co-ordinate position with every other worker in our democracy. Our public schools are still too much occupied with the preparation of the few who go to the university or college; they should equally concern themselves with the preparation of the many who must fill our workshops and factories. The real cause of this faulty condition, I think, does not lie with the teacher entirely; he is rather the victim of circumstances. Almost all teachers with the exception of some engaged in manual training instruction, have never been in the midst of hustling and bustling industrial life. They have climbed the educational ladder, some to the end of the normal school period, some even to the top round of collegiate achievement. It is no wonder, therefore, that they do not fully appreciate industrial conditions and their possibilities, but on the other hand, are eager to carry all their pupils in turn up to the top round of the educational ladder. The consequence of this is the condition which President Roosevelt has so tersely described at various occasions, the last time in Washington when he addressed the delegates to the International Congress of Mothers last March and when he deplored the fact that our schools are training the

mass of the people away from the workshop and the bench. Truly, this condition calls for a remedy and indeed an early one. The most important consideration in all this is the fact that, whether or not the teachers instill into the great majority of boys who, as previously shown, enter industrial life at the end of the compulsory school age, an appreciation of the value and the beauty and the dignity of manual labor, these boys are not kept out of the field of manual work; circumstances force them into such avenues of livelihood; at the present time, however, they enter these avenues with an inadequate preparation and with the wrong spirit, which in turn fosters discontent, and in the end spells failure.

There is beauty in manual work, as there is beauty in every other kind of work that is performed well. The skilled workman can put the stamp of his individuality on every piece of work that he performs. If he keeps his eyes open, he can see the graceful lines of one machine and another and appreciate the harmony and significance of the curves and angles of the product wrought by skilled hands; if he keeps his ears open, he can hear the song of the engine which works on steadily and cheerfully from morn till evening, all the time singing out its song of satisfaction. One can find more in manual work than the mere moving of fingers if only the mind has been trained to see in it more than the purely mechanical operation. Those in industrial life who are fortunate enough to perceive these opportunities put their heart and soul into their work and make a success. Those, how-

ever, who do not have this broader vision, carry on their work in the spirit of fatalists and never rise above the low level.

All teachers should familiarize themselves with the life of the community which surrounds them and their pupils and into which most of their pupils will go, so that they may make their teaching more interesting and real by applying the abstract teaching to practical life. The manual training teachers in particular should furthermore have had practical experience in industrial work, and give the manual training a more distinct bearing on the industries of the particular locality. Abandon the idea that manual training is only a cultural study and give it also a vocational value. In view of the small amount of schooling which the majority of boys receive, it seems evident that such manual training should begin in the lower grades of the elementary school.

In order to reach the masses most effectively, I should further suggest that every grammar school, as far as possible, should have elective courses in trade instruction, and that every boy of 12 or more may enter these courses if he so elects, regardless of the grade he may be in at the time.

I should consider it a mistake to confine this opportunity to the boys of the ninth, eighth and seventh grades. The fact that a boy of 12 years has not advanced farther than the fourth grade is to my mind an indication either that nature has neglected his mental side, so that he cannot, in spite of all efforts, comprehend the more or less abstract teaching of the public schools, or that his

brain is simply covered with a crust that the usual teaching has not been able to penetrate. Such backward boys, however, are usually physically strong and full of animal spirits which seek some outlet. Industrial work in the school will furnish this outlet, and the boys, I am sure, will gladly take advantage of it. Aside from the direct preparation for an industrial life which is thus offered to the boys, there will, undoubtedly result the added pedagogical advantage of attracting boys to the school and keeping them there, sometime even beyond the compulsory school age; for school will now have a new meaning to the boy, a visible value that his immature mind can easily comprehend. This trade teaching may, furthermore, prove to be the very agency which can penetrate the petrified brain of the boy and thereby improve his general scholarship. The vocational element in the grammar school, however, must not detract from the cultural value of the program, for the culture acquired at school will powerfully influence the boy's future work and especially his leisure time; and for this reason, I should advocate that the elective trade instruction be given in the afternoons, after the regular school sessions, and on Saturday forenoons. It will then be possible also, to establish trade classes in only some of the grammar schools which are easily accessible to the other grammar schools, thereby serving economy without detriment to efficiency. The cost of installation and maintenance ought surely not stand in the way in the end, if such provision should be considered of

real educational benefit to the children of the country.

In the brief space of time allotted to me, I have purposely omitted to speak of the kind of industrial education that should be offered to the boys who have finished the grammar school. The establishment of distinctive Trade Schools, in which a trade is taught as well as industrial intelligence developed, seems obvious. Their sphere can, however, include only a small portion of the boys. The direct preparation of the pupils of the elementary schools for the occupations of life remains the problem of greatest importance.

THE NEED OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION AND ITS METHODS, FROM THE EDUCATIONALIST'S POINT OF VIEW.

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SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

The educational value and need of industrial training—this is the part of the general topic that falls to me. It is not a new thing. It calls to mind that time honored controversy, whether the chief object of education is mental discipline or the ultimate usefulness of the knowledge acquired. I use the word controversy with some hesitation because I believe the main points at issue in this long discussion have ceased to be debatable ex-

cepting as academic questions. Time was when a great college president could solemnly declare to an applauding assembly of scholars that he had never intentionally learned anything useful nor had he ever meant to teach anything useful. We recall also the toast of the Senior Wrangler at Cambridge, "Here's to pure mathematics; may she never be of any use to anybody." But it is hardly conceivable that such declarations could be made to-day with any serious purpose. Educational theory unites with public opinion in taking a wider view of the true purpose of school work. This does not mean, however, that men are losing sight of the value of the intellectual element in education. It is merely an adjustment to modern demands. The scientific achievements of the past century have brought new facts to light, put great natural forces at our command, and opened up vast stores of wealth to be developed and distributed. In adjusting themselves to these new conditions men have discovered new views of the relation of human intelligence and skill to material progress. New elements of culture have come into the field; education has come to have a new meaning and we have a new definition of the cultivated mind. No longer can the life and thought of the past exercise the supreme influence upon the spirit of the schools. Intellectual power of the highest order is needed to cope with the practical problems of a scientific and industrial age.

But the sources of power and material progress that characterize our times are by no means the only new facts that must find recognition in school

programs. New forces, new conditions, new possibilities bring also new needs, new dangers, new responsibilities for the individual. The industries that once centered about the home, on the farm and in the village, have given place to the immensely more productive methods of a machine working age, when people live in towns and cities. In our anxiety to give the productive industries due representation in the school we must not overlook the peculiar needs which modern conditions have developed in the homes of the people, for it is fundamental to the well-being of society that the home should be preserved as the place where the products of industry may be wisely consumed for the health, comfort, and happiness of the family.

To meet these new economic and social needs, what ought to be the character of the training given to the rising generation? What should be the relation of the practical, industrial, vocational element to intellectual training which, it must be admitted, lies at the basis of all education? This is evidently a question that takes us out into a large place. It concerns every individual, whatever may be his calling. It touches every home. It reaches out through every avenue of production, trade, and commerce. It connects itself vitally with local, national, and international relations. It is one of the most important problems that modern society has to deal with.

In considering, first, the need from the educational point of view for a wider extension of public school work along practical lines the argument may be founded upon the proposition, which needs

no proof, that a complete education is not derived from training along intellectual lines merely, or by those methods that have long been associated with the idea of a school. It is hardly necessary for a great philosopher to tell us that "the essential thing which education has to give our youth is to teach them how to live, not in the mere material sense only of sustaining life but in the wider sense of how to use all their faculties to the greatest advantage to themselves and to others, how to live completely." This is a part of the common sense of modern times.

The early founders of our American public school systems, however, were singularly blind to this fact. Our New England forefathers spoke of "learning and labor as profitable to the commonwealth," but they thought that education had to do only with the first of these two or that it was at best only indirectly associated with the second. To them education was schooling, with training for citizenship as its chief aim. They did not realize how much the every day occupations of their children, their simple life, their industry and frugality, and their piety, not to speak of the training for the vocations under master craftsmen, contributed to make the individual a power in the community and to lay the educational foundations for true citizenship. We now know that a very small part of the real educational processes of these early times was to be found in the schools. Moreover, there have been long periods in the history of all races when there were no schools at all. Primitive races found their educational stimuli in their environment, in

the school of experience. Out of this there has come, by the process of social evolution, an institution which we call the school; and its inevitable modifications are simply due to the continuance of the evolutionary process. If we were to trace this process back through the ages, we should find the industrial element reaching back so far and extending over so long periods of time as to justify the statement that it has been the basis of all education. Viewed in this broad way, it will be seen that the modern movement for industrial training is merely a restoration of natural methods. When the fact is clearly apprehended that the educational processes of the schools have become too largely separated from modern life and must be brought into line with modern phases of social development, because they are an essential part of that development, there will be no hesitation in adopting the industrial plan for practically all our schools.

To illustrate the bearing of industrial changes upon general education it is not necessary to appeal to the records of history. There are many men and women now living who can go back in memory, or at least in family traditions, two or three generations to a time, when practically all the industries of small communities in all the older sections of this country were clustered about the household. The home was the center of industrial activity; and there were often carried on in a single family all the typical industries of the community. The clothing and much of the house linen was made from home-spun cloth, and all the girls of the family were familiar with the carding and spinning

of the wool and flax and with the plying of the loom. They made butter and cheese, and we have been told that they could cook wholesome and palatable food. Their laundry work improved the appearance of fabrics without impairing the texture. Not only were all domestic operations revealed to them by constant operation and practice, but they also knew the preparatory processes back of them. They saw the wheat and corn planted and harvested and the grist taken to the mill. They watched the grinding and they knew when and why the product was good or bad. They extracted the potash from wood ashes and made the soap. They knew the whole tedious process on which they depended for illumination, from the killing of the animal and the frying out of the tallow to the setting of wicks and the molding of candles. They were independent in their own homes. Their training had set them free from the natural limitations of pioneer life by giving them a mastery over the conditions of a comfortable living. This material independence they had added to the freedom of conscience for which their fathers had come to these shores, thus securing the foundations for that freedom of thought which, we are told, is the meaning of a liberal education.

The boys got an excellent form of physical training in the preparation of fuel. They were made familiar with all the processes involved in putting the birch tree of the forest through the various stages necessary to fit it for use in the fire-place. They milked the cows, brought water from the well, and did innumerable chores. Nor was their

work all of the rougher sort. They attended to the repairs on the dwelling house and the farm buildings. They took part in the designing of many implements and tools and helped keep them in repair. They assisted in shearing the sheep and in shoeing the horses and oxen. If there were any necessary materials of wood or metal, any tools or building supplies that their own farm did not furnish, they knew where to get them to the best advantage. They knew the forests and streams and were good hunters. Was there anything within their horizon worth knowing or doing that they did not know or do? Trained under exacting conditions and in a limited sphere, they became conscious of the value of individual and of co-operative effort and learned how to count the cost of whatever they acquired in terms of time and labor. The brief winter schooling of the majority, or the more extended but still limited tuition of those belonging to well-to-do families, by no means comprised their educational opportunities. All the conditions of living, the social and economic facts of the community in which they lived, their world, lay within easy reach of every observing mind. They readily comprehended a system of life to which they contributed a large share by their own personal efforts.

It is impossible to conceive of a more radical contrast to this picture of complete mastery over the conditions of living than the limitations that often oppress the city boys and girls of the present age. What a multitude of artificial conditions surround them, ministering to their every want and

comfort without their knowing or caring to know their origin! What interesting things constantly pass before their eyes without calling forth any but the most superficial inquiry! Their clothes are given them ready-made. They know nothing first hand of the industrial forces that have contributed to this important item. Instead of the simple candle made at home, the inventions of an Edison serve them. They have but to turn a switch and the central station instantly gives them a flood of light. If they venture to ask how this happens, there is no one to give them a satisfactory answer. It is not the self-evident bucket and well-sweep just beyond the road which supply them with water. In their own rooms they tap the reservoirs of the distant hills. So it is with all the circumstances of their complex lives. They are constantly receiving, never contributing of their own thought and effort to the substance of living; nor could they if they would. Life has become too complex even for the adult to undertake more than a small part of the necessary forms of production that minister to his own needs. The period of domestic economy, of household and neighborhood occupations, has passed away forever. The period of intensified production and long hauls is here. Society has become an enormous and complicated mechanism. How different it is from the society of scarcely a century ago may be seen in the fact that if the single item of transportation should be suspended for three days our large city populations would find themselves in distressing need of food supplies. Six days more of suspended traffic would

bring the whole nation to the verge of starvation. That we are so near the precipice and yet so secure proves the certainty of the evolution of the system under which we live.

There can be no question that our boys and girls, living normally under present conditions, enjoy many real advantages to compensate, partially at least, for the loss of the best things of the older period. Society is more tolerant, personal opportunity has become greatly increased—opportunity for self-improvement and for service—the horizon of human vision has been enormously extended. The world is larger, richer, better. The child born into this heritage is not altogether unfortunate. He needs, however, the protection and guidance of a rational system of education more than the child of any previous age. Left to battle alone with present conditions, he does not have the same chance to rise to his opportunities that the child of a simpler time enjoyed. At no time in the history of civilization has the school assumed an importance more vital to the development of the individual and the security of society than it assumes to-day. The remarkable growth of schools in number and in the extent of their programs, not only in this country but also abroad, is evidence that this fact is appreciated. But it will not suffice merely to multiply and enlarge our schools. We must adjust them to the changed conditions of life, utilizing in them as much as possible the educational forces found in modern society, and at the same time supplying, to the greatest possible extent, what is lacking in present social conditions.

We are not likely to overestimate the disciplinary value of a well ordered system of industrial training to the moral as well as the intellectual development of the children of the present day. The complex conditions under which our young people live, the many distractions that constantly surround them out of school, the necessary multiplication and extension of the subjects of study in school, all contribute to breed tendencies to superficiality. This has often been pointed out as a danger which besets youthful minds by people who in their youth had more limited opportunities for culture and training. Abraham Lincoln, with his abundance of hard physical exercise and his two or three books for study, was better supplied with the conditions favorable to the development of the power of sustained and concentrated thought than the city boy of to-day. It is not difficult to see how the various forms of industrial training, or how school work of any kind that compels the concrete expression of ideas, must require a certain faithfulness, accuracy, and attention to details in order to yield a true expression of the thought or ideas involved. The whole process makes for thoroughness in conception and in result which is sure to be tested in the concrete product. There can be no easy self-deception, no unconscious borrowing of the activity or results of others. In making an oak center table, for example, for some specified purpose, the boy thinks out his own design with a definite object in view. When this is realized in materials it will be easily seen whether it is true to his thought or not. He must work to

dimensions and be true to all of them or his work will not prove out. Carelessness and superficiality would be at once apparent. No less apparent is the fact that fidelity to the working out of a good design brings a true result, and with it the great satisfaction that every young mind feels in the sense of mastery. Moreover, the operation of this principle is cumulative in refinement of processes and in results. Fidelity in the elementary stages is seen to be necessary in order that more difficult things may be accomplished later. The boy works to 64ths of an inch at his wood-working bench in order that he may some day be able to accomplish the very difficult task of working to thousandths of an inch on the machine lathe. It is not necessary to multiply examples. It is evident that there must be in this kind of training a stimulus to foresight, to the power to see the end from the beginning, and to seek that end by legitimate processes developed by the experience of many workers who have done like things before. Such work, when there is any reality in it, demands correlation with mathematics, the sciences, the study of English composition, and gives these subjects a vitality which they do not possess when approached from a less concrete point of view. Work in a great variety of materials—wood, iron, brass, copper, clay, leather, textiles, and food stuffs—is a school of experience not unlike that by means of which the human race has been developed.

But the question may be asked, what does this all come to in definite practical results? This, after all, is the test of value. Much has been done in

the name of industrial education that has fallen wide of the mark. Drawing and manual training have much to answer for that is not to their credit, because they have so often failed to serve in their true capacity as the representatives in the school of the fundamental industries as they are carried on to-day. It is commonly asserted that this failure to meet practical needs has been due to an excess of zeal for cultural ends. This is on the assumption that cultural and practical elements are necessarily wide apart. The fact is that culture has a wide and almost boundless field from which to select its materials, while the practice of any art or industry is necessarily confined within comparatively narrow limits. That kind of drawing which deals exclusively with flowers and leaves or with models of historic ornament is of little industrial value. Manual training which produces useless models or articles of faulty design and construction is of no practical use. Equally fruitless are exercises in cooking or sewing that are not likely to be continued at home. If, from the accumulations of art and the bounties of nature, materials of culture and discipline are chosen which are out of touch with the facts and tendencies of real life, the best directed efforts of an otherwise rational plan of education, using such materials, will fail to yield concrete and practical results. It is not that a cultural aim cannot in the nature of the case hit the mark. On the contrary, with well chosen elements wisely used, such an aim is certain to prove itself equal to meet all practical tests.

But all this may be granted and yet there will

come the question whether we cannot secure practical results by specializing on certain important practical lines and giving little or no time to the intellectual side of the work. This question may be answered both negatively and affirmatively because there are two quite distinct meanings attached to the term "practical." What is sufficiently practical for the wage earner whose work is along narrow lines is far from meeting the practical needs of one whose work is more varied and comprehensive. A man does not need to know so many things to fit him to be a good bricklayer, machinist, or plumber, as he does to qualify himself to be a practical man of affairs. A girl who is learning to be a cook, a dressmaker, or a milliner must of necessity know how to do a few things well; but in any of these capacities alone she will not experience the need for so wide a range of practical knowledge as will be required in the well-trained home-maker. What is practical in one sphere is not practical in the other, or at most only partially so; and it is to be noted that the broader practical training always compels the intellectual or cultural quality. Breadth and versatility in practical things imply intellectual power. Formulas and recipes are legitimate and valuable in the lower spheres of industrial activity; but those whose field of action presents the wider view, who are preparing to live as well as to make a living, should know the underlying principles governing a wide range of ordinary processes and be able to meet new conditions as well; and so they must hold themselves above rules and formulas.

If we turn now from the consideration of the bearing of practical and technical training upon the welfare of the individual to examine the economic questions involved—the lack of skilled workmanship, the comparative inferiority of much of our manufactured product, the cause of the success of foreign countries in the competition for the world's markets, and the real source of our own industrial and commercial success—the arguments for an extension of technical and vocational training of every grade press upon us from all sides.

Of the growing scarcity of intelligent and skilled workmanship there is abundant evidence. It is the complaint of the leaders in every field of industry. It is apparent to every observer of ordinary building or manufacture. Bad masonry, inferior carpentry and cabinet making, defective plumbing, imperfections of design and construction are common. It may not be too much to say that they are the rule rather than the exception. If we are reminded of the great industrial achievements of our time as controverting the universal complaints of general lack of efficiency and skill on the part of the workmen, we shall see, on looking into the matter, that the lofty buildings of our cities, marvels of design and construction, are monuments to the genius of engineers who have been able to bring the materials of their art into such form and system that they can utilize the abundance of unskilled labor, marshalled under a few master workmen, who were, for the most part, trained abroad. We shall understand that our great output of profitable manufactures is due to the power of business organiza-

tion so transcendent in our captains of industry; to skill in minute divisions and sub-divisions of labor and management and not to unusual skill of workmanship; and we shall also comprehend the fact that the most potent factor of all, in giving us a show of supremacy in the world's markets, is our bountiful, but not inexhaustible supply of raw materials. Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip of New York has recently called attention to the fact that while many factors have contributed to the creation of our vast commerce there is the absence of one noteworthy influence: "No purchaser buys our goods for the reason that there has been wrought into them superior handicraft. Manual skill controls for us no market."

All this will be changed if we transform the rank and file of the industrial army, as it seems necessary to do in the not distant future, into a nation of intelligent and skillful workers in the various fields of production. Such a result, as is well known, has been accomplished in Germany. With a scanty supply of raw materials of industry and commerce she has found her resources in her people; and through the intelligence and skill of her industrial classes, brought about in large measure by her splendid system of technical and trades schools, she has taken a commanding place in the commerce of the world. It has been estimated that industrial and technical education below the grade of that given in the polytechnic schools is not more than one-fiftieth as extensive in the United States as it is in Germany. In the single kingdom of Bavaria there are 290 trades schools giving instruc-

tion in 28 trades and crafts. This little kingdom, with a population not much greater than that of New York city, supports more schools for distinct and definite industrial training than the entire United States with eighty-five million people.

But it should be noted that the element of intellectual training is by no means overlooked in the splendid system of technical and trades education in Germany. These schools were established and developed when Germany was a country of small shops in which apprentices to the various trades could be taught principles and practice in a broad way. The main office of the German industrial schools has been to supplement this instruction by lessons in mathematics, drawing, and science, with special reference to certain trades. There are in Germany schools for practice in certain trades, especially in certain sections of the country where the industries require it, as, for example, in the kingdom of Saxony, where the textile industries are very important. But, generally speaking, the Germans avoid in their school system early special training for skill and make much of the intellectual training which must underlie all industrial work in which a high degree of skill and proficiency is essential.

This is not the place to attempt a description of German education. To give the merest outline of so elaborate a plan would require all the time allowed me. It must suffice to keep in mind that German industrial education is not less than fifty times as extensive as American industrial education, taking into account in both countries all the

schools from the colleges of technology to schools of the most elementary grade giving training to be applied in the productive industries. Moreover, all German education, whether industrial, commercial, scientific or professional may be described as vocational. The carpenters, machinists, masons, plumbers, weavers, shoemakers, workers in what ever line, even the barbers and chimney sweeps, are trained for their several callings as faithfully as are the doctors, lawyers and teachers for theirs; and in every part of this comprehensive scheme of vocational training, intelligence, thoroughness and efficiency are emphasized. We may take it for granted that it is the most complete system of practical training to be found anywhere in the world. How the thing is done need not detain us. The chief point of interest is to be found in the economic advantage of such a scheme of education.

All students of this question agree in giving the schools of Germany large credit for the phenomenal expansion of German industry and trade during the last thirty-five years. There has lately issued from the Riverside Press a little volume by Dr. E. D. Howard, entitled "The Cause and Extent of the Recent Industrial Progress of Germany." Dr. Howard begins by pointing out the magnitude of the change that has taken place, quoting a well known authority of German history; who writes as follows:

"A hundred years ago, a poor country of peasants and handicraftsmen, thinkers and poets, divided into several hundred weak and small states; to-day, a great, unified, powerful empire, whose

prosperity, great industries, and technique, whose army and bureaucracy, constitution and free government, and whose power and strength are appreciated far beyond her frontiers."

It is certainly a remarkable achievement for a confederation of practically independent states, owing nominal allegiance to an Austrian emperor, with a population largely agricultural, unprogressive and poor, with scanty natural resources and having few friends among the nations, to emerge from this low estate and suddenly exhibit a development not far behind that of the United States—a country of enormous natural resources—rival Great Britain in commerce, and surpass all her continental competitors. The two chief causes that combined to produce this result were political unity under the empire, and the establishment of a complete and rational system of education. The king of Prussia said, after his crushing defeat by the French under Napoleon:

"The state must regain by intellectual power what she has lost in material power, and to this end I desire that everything may be done to extend and perfect the education of the people."

That utterance was prophetic. All students of German affairs agree that the influence of her educational system has been paramount. Without it her military strength and political prestige would have been impossible. Dr. Howard says, "probably we can put down as one of the most fundamental and important causes of the present prosperity of the German nation the close relations which exist in that country between science and

practical affairs." He notes the fact that this policy prevails not only in governmental departments but in industry. "The men who have the technical direction of the processes and the experimental laboratories have been trained in the technical schools and were able to bring into practical use the latest achievements of science."

The thorough training in industries and in business methods has not only brought the German nation to her present commanding position but it gives security for the future. Their confidence is founded upon careful study of the conditions in other countries in comparison with their own. There has been some question whether the expansion of American industries would destroy their foreign trade; but the best German authorities are of the opinion that the "American invasion" of their markets is not a thing to be feared. They recognize the United States as a land of "unlimited possibilities," but they observe also that the "Americans are seriously handicapped with manifest disadvantages of which they are unconscious. They notice especially the almost entire absence of provision for public schools supplying systematic instruction in craftsmanship and they assert that this lack is sufficient to overcome any natural advantages in resources or geographical situation." Now this is the comment of a commission composed of German merchants, manufacturers, economists, and constructionists. Their special problem was to study conditions affecting the security and expansion of German trade; and they advised their people not

to be disturbed about any American interference with it at an early day.

The question of a foreign market has been all important for Germany; she could not live without exchanging the products of the knowledge and skill of her people for the merchandise of other lands. It is not until recently that this great question has come to the front in America. We have been busy in developing our own industries and in exploiting our own resources. Hitherto we have been able to use at home nearly all our productions; but it is the opinion of economists that the time has come when we must seek foreign markets for our productions if we are to continue to be a prosperous nation. A recent report from the U. S. Census Bureau authorizes the statement that in 1906 the value of the exports from Germany were 1.57 times greater than the value of the exports from the United States, and this ratio has been maintained without substantial change since 1880. This means that the German nation, with meager natural resources at her command, has by industrial and technical education alone, within thirty years, been more than a match in foreign commerce for the American nation with all her natural advantages in materials, machinery and ability to turn out manufactured products at low cost and to sell them. Germany is now in the forefront in the competition for the world's markets; and if we seek to extend our trade abroad we shall find her our most important rival. In this competition scientific knowledge, industrial intelligence and skilled workmanship are to count as the

highest factors. If we are to make them count on our side, we must do in our own way, through the schools, what the Germans have already done.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONALISM.

When the American Institute of Instruction was in session last year, there was sitting at the Hague the most august assembly the world has ever seen. This second Peace Congress sat for four months. It was the first conference to which all the nations sent representatives, and was the real beginning of the parliament of man, since it provided for a successor, thus practically insuring its permanency. Two hundred and fifty trained statesmen from forty-four countries, working together for four months under the difficulty of different racial, national and political prejudices, and conducting their transactions in a language foreign to most of them, keeping always within the bounds of courtesy, is a remarkable achievement. The permanent court on which they agreed will probably be established as soon as a few nations agree upon the method of choosing judges. Before the third Hague Conference, Secretary Root expects this court to be established. Providing for a regular judicial body acting under international law, it will command the confidence of the world much more even than the Arbitration Court of 1899. The establishment of a Prize Court, the Porter-Drago Agreement, providing for the peaceful settlement of all contractual debts,

the prohibition against bombarding unfortified towns, making the lessening of fortifications a direct promotion of defense, the prohibition against throwing explosives from air-ships, thus saving the world hundreds of millions of dollars in new inventions for aerial war, were other advance steps taken by the conference to promote peace and lessen the scope of war.

It should be a matter of pride to every school boy to know that the United States at both Hague Conferences has nobly done its part in working for a United World. The geography class that is studying Latin America might well be told the story of the Christ of the Andes which commemorates that eternal compact of peace between Chile and Argentina. Students of history could well learn how last autumn the turbulent Central American states neutralized Honduras, agreed upon a supreme court to settle all their mutual difficulties, and arranged to establish a university in which teachers from all five countries should be trained, and thus to overcome mutual prejudices.

The class that is studying Northern Europe should be told that Russia, Germany, France and England have this year agreed to protect Norway from aggression, and that all the nations on the North Sea and the Baltic signed last April in St. Petersburg and Berlin agreements to respect each other's territoriality. These acts mean one of the greatest steps toward defense that these nations have taken in modern times.

Although the Hague Conference did not provide for a general treaty of arbitration, the countries of the world individually have recognized this principle. Already about sixty international arbitration treaties have been signed with other countries within the last few

months. Our treaty with Japan, the first arbitration treaty that Japan has ever signed, removes all danger of war over any difficulties that are likely to arise.

The educators of the world are calling attention to these facts. Their interest was well described in the report which the Committee on Patriotism and Internationalism presented to the American Institute a year ago. This body, which for three-quarters of a century has performed an important part in all and has exercised efficient leadership in most great educational movements in America, has taken a foremost part in the educational phase of this international movement. The American Institute was the first educational organization in America to discuss the teaching of peace and internationalism. At the New Haven convention of 1906 it devoted a session to this subject and important addresses were given by President Faunce, Dr. Mowry, Mrs. Mead and Mrs. Andrews. At this meeting its Department of Patriotism and Internationalism was established and a special committee was appointed to report on a plan to organize the teachers of the country for an active campaign of peace instruction in the schools. A member of this committee was Dr. Schaeffer, under whose leadership, as president, the National Educational Association took similar action. The American Institute realizes that the world-wide movement for international peace and good-will can be enduring only on an educational basis and that public education has passed into a stage which requires a study of international relations and duties. This spirit is well illustrated by the following resolutions presented by the Committee on Resolutions:

Resolved, That in accordance with the Report of the Committee for the Promotion of International Peace, appointed at our meeting in 1906, the American Institute of Instruction requests its Executive Committee to take action during the coming year to disseminate the sentiments of International Peace among the teachers of New England by selecting and recommending proper literature, providing speakers to present the subject at international gatherings, co-operating with similar bodies in our own and foreign lands, and, in general, to further the adoption of peace principles in our schools, and that they be requested to continue at future meetings our new "Department of Patriotism and Internationalism."

Resolved, That we adopt and request our Executive Committee to cable to the American representative at the International Peace Conference now in session at La Hague—the following message:

"The American Institute of Instruction now meeting at Montreal urges the consideration of the full Interparliamentary Union program, especially the Limitation of Armaments."

The American Institute of Instruction was the first educational body to send a cablegram to the Hague Conference last year, although at the meeting of the National Education Association immediately following the convention at Montreal, a most enthusiastic endorsement was given to this international movement. The presidential address of Dr. Schaeffer at the opening of the National Education Association in Los Angeles entitled, "What Can the School Do to Aid the Peace Movement" was a convincing plea for the teaching of this subject in the schools. "Teach history,"

said he, "in such a way that the pupil will write the name of the poet, the orator, the artist, the inventor, the educator, the statesman, the philanthropist, in a place as conspicuous in the temple of fame as that occupied by the victorious general or the successful admiral. Lead the pupil to see that Pasteur, the scientist, has done more for humanity than Napoleon, the destroyer of thousands; that Carnegie, the philanthropist, has done more for civilization than the admiral who sinks a hostile fleet." Dr. Schaeffer urged that the 18th of May, the anniversary of the opening of the first Hague Conference, be regularly observed in all the schools of America to inculcate sentiments of peace and international fraternity. Following this address, which was unanimously indorsed by the association, the following resolutions, significant, indeed, as coming from this great body of national educators, were submitted by President W. O. Thompson, of the Ohio State University, and adopted with enthusiasm:

The teachers of the United States of America, assembled in the National Education Association at Los Angeles, Cal., view with pleasure and satisfaction the conditions which have brought about the Second Hague Conference. We believe that the forces of the world should be organized and operated in the interests of peace, and not of war; we believe that the material, commercial, and social interests of the people of the United States and of the whole world demand that the energies of the governments and of the people be devoted to the constructive and helpful pursuits of peace, and that the people be relieved of the burdens of providing at enormous expense the armaments suggested by the competitive desire for supremacy in war;

we further believe that the fear of war and the possibility of war would alike decline if the governments were to rely more upon the sentiment of the people and less upon their armies and navies.

We urge upon our representatives at the Second Hague Conference to use their influence to widen the scope and increase the power of the Hague Tribunal. While disclaiming any desire to suggest a program or to urge a specific action, we do urge our representatives to secure the most favorable action possible upon international arbitration, the limitations of armaments, the protection of private property at sea, and the investigation of international disputes by an impartial commission before the declaration of hostilities.

The second resolution, that urging advanced action at The Hague, was at once cabled to our American delegation.

Almost simultaneously with the American Institute of Instruction, the summer school of the south at Knoxville, Tenn., at the Fourth of July celebration sent a significant cablegram to the Hague: "America's representatives at the First Hague Conference on July 4 led the nations in honoring Grotius. We urge them to-day to lead in behalf of limiting armaments and of a regular international parliament."

These appeals from three of our largest educational gatherings give utterance to the support of the American teacher to the movement for international peace.

The observance of the 18th of May as Peace Day in the schools, under the official approval of the state, had its origin in New England, Massachusetts leading in 1905, followed by Rhode Island and Vermont in

1906. During the past year this day was observed in the schools of fifteen states on the recommendations of the state superintendents of education, and in many towns and cities of other states. This observance has the endorsement of Dr. Brown who, in his first and second annual reports, recommends the observance of this day. One of the most significant things about this observance is the universal responsiveness in the child. This spirit was indeed manifested at the great Young People's meeting during the National Peace Congress in New York a year ago last April where 4,000 young people voted unanimously to appoint a committee to organize the children of the United States into a League of Peace.

This committee has met during the year and has deemed it wise to organize the teachers rather than the children. An organization called "The American School Peace League", which has for its object "to Promote, through the schools and the educational public of America, the interests of international justice and fraternity," has just been formed, with Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews of Boston, secretary. The organizers of this association hope that every teacher in the country will join this league. No dues are provided for in the association but according to Article III of the Constitution, "all teachers in the schools of the country, persons otherwise enlisted in the general work of education, and students in high schools, academies, normal schools, and colleges shall be eligible to membership in the league; such persons may become members by signifying their devotion to the purpose of the league." Your committee hopes that the American

Institute of Instruction will continue its great efforts in the way of spreading the peace idea, and that it will co-operate genuinely and thoroughly with the American School Peace League.

The educational organizations for peace, however, are not confined to the public schools. The students in the colleges have taken up the work. The Intercollegiate Peace Association, formed for the purpose of disseminating peace sentiments among college students, is already represented by forty-six universities and colleges in the United States. The educational campaign for international peace has begun and every teacher in the world is responsible for its progress. He should lend his aid to the organized educational efforts, for they will not move without his support. He should stand shoulder to shoulder with fellow-teachers in the work for the achievement of a higher civilization. He should base his teaching on the Golden Rule in international as well as in personal affairs, and teach his pupils that the nation as well as the individual is bound in honor to beg pardon when it is wrong, and in courtesy and good-will to help the weak and act the gentlemen.

In conclusion, we present the following resolutions for your consideration:

Whereas, The United States has been engaged in international war with a foreign power only six months in the last sixty years, and was never in such friendly relations with foreign powers as at the present time; while the lives and health of the people and our national resources are openly menaced by crime, indifference, ignorance, and disease, which only right education can remove.

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction urges all teachers to instruct their pupils in such a way as to emphasize the internal needs of our country, to repress racial and national prejudices, and to teach the great achievements already accomplished which render possible the peaceful settlement of international difficulties.

Resolved, That we request state departments of education to take action to secure the appropriate observance of Peace Day in schools and otherwise to promote the teaching of internationalism.

Resolved, That we recommend co-operation with the American School Peace League, recently established, which aims "to promote, through the schools and the educational public of America, the interests of international justice and fraternity."

WALTER E. RANGER, Chairman,
Providence, R. I.

EDWIN GINN,
Boston, Mass.

LOYED E. CHAMBERLAIN,
Brockton, Mass.

LUCIA AMES MEAD,
Boston, Mass.

FANNY FERN ANDREWS,
Boston Mass.

Committee.

Voted that the report be accepted and printed in the Book of Proceedings.

THE MOVEMENT FOR HIGHER SALARIES; SOME MORAL CONSIDERATIONS.

FRANK H. BEEDE,
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
NEW HAVEN, CONN.

(Stenographic Report—Corrected.)

So much has been said upon the general subject of increased salaries for teachers that it seems as if little could be added. There have been few teachers' conventions in the past five years at which this subject has not been discussed and the public now seems to be awake to the fact that higher salaries must be paid for the quality of work that teachers are expected to do. This movement for higher salaries for teachers has been one of necessity. The rapid increase in the cost of living in the last ten years, with no corresponding increase in teachers' salaries, and the multiplication of occupations open to women have appreciably diminished the supply of those who, naturally, under old conditions, would have taken up the work of the teacher. These conditions have made necessary a readjustment of teachers' salaries, and actual adjustment has already begun. Many places all over the country have increased the salaries of teachers from ten to forty per cent., some even more, and, without doubt, a general movement in this direction is well under way.

It is because I feel that this subject is one of great importance and that the movement should

be conducted, as far as teachers themselves are concerned, with sobriety and dignity, that I want to call the attention of teachers to certain mischievous tendencies which have appeared and which, if allowed to continue, cannot fail to do permanent injury to the cause for which the teacher stands. These tendencies cannot be said to be characteristic of the movement for higher salaries, but they have cropped out in various parts of the country and have been sufficiently prominent to tend to lower the dignity and the good repute of the teacher's profession.

The first of the tendencies to which I refer is the rise or evolution from the teacher's ranks of the local agitator—the person who, never before noted for signal ability or inspiration as a teacher, nor for good deeds or public spirit as a man or woman, now seizes the opportunity to become a leader, and, by clamorousness of tongue and a certain audacity of spirit, attracts an attention which had not been gained by substantial traits of character and high standards of service; one who in the attitude of promoter of a good cause, is really seeking notoriety and selfish gain. I do not mean to say that the usual leader has been of this sort, but I believe that your own familiarity with the history of this movement brings sufficient examples to your minds so that I need not make more definite specifications. If we want to secure and maintain the respect and sympathy of the community in which we work, the leaders whom we put forward and whom we follow must be persons of high

ideals, of large public spirit, of self-restraint, and of well-balanced minds; not those who selfishly seek their own advancement or who ignorantly lead their followers into positions of doubtful propriety.

The second tendency has been the introduction of the public schools into politics. New England has always been comparatively free from politics in her public schools. It is true that exceptions exist and that politics have sometimes entered through peculiar local conditions; but on the whole, there has been a general understanding throughout the New England states that the public schools must be conducted on business principles; that teachers must be appointed on merit to hold their positions during satisfactory service, and that ward politics have no place or proper influence in the administration of the schools.

During the present salary movement, especially when it has become a public cause, shrewd politicians and sometimes political parties, have been quick to see the practical advantage to be gained by sympathy with it, have bartered promises for votes, have assumed an interest they did not feel, and have unscrupulously misled many teachers to believe that their interests lay with one political party and not with the community at large. No political party can pose as the sole and unselfish guardian of the public schools and I want to say that teachers should be slow to accept help from any political source or influence that does not have its foundation in a public-spirited purpose to promote the teacher's usefulness and to increase the

efficiency of the schools. Any offer that smacks of personal gain without increase of efficiency should be regarded with suspicion by every teacher who has the good of the profession at heart.

Another tendency has been the disposition to over-reach and to ask for more than a community has been able to pay. Often those who have been conducting this movement have not sufficiently understood local conditions and have not always realized the fact that a city, with all its municipal departments, must of necessity be limited as to the funds it has to use for public school purposes. Whenever this takes place, the natural result is a reaction. The schools and public sentiment ought to go hand in hand. The schools ought to go no faster in any direction than they can carry the intelligent public with them. Otherwise reactions are bound to take place which will result in a harmful instability in school conditions.

Still another tendency accompanying the salary agitation has been the exploitation of certain foolish economic notions—an exploitation reflecting no credit upon the intelligence or the education of those who hold these notions. If, for instance, you mean by "equal pay for equal work"—that men and women occupying similar positions should receive the same salary because of the similar nature of the positions they hold, that is a very plain thing to understand; but if you mean that men and women occupying similar positions, should receive equal salaries because they do the same work, that is another proposition. Men and women do not do

the same work. They cannot do the same work. They may perform the same routine duties, but this does not mean that the permanent value of their influence and services is the same. Nature has otherwise ordained. The public schools must have the services of both men and women. Both are necessary for the training of boys and girls. They complement each other. What one lacks the other supplies. Their compensation, however, is an economic consideration following the law of supply and demand, depending upon the market conditions, etc. This cry of "equal pay for equal work" reminds one of the old story of King Canute and the tide.

While these tendencies that I have spoken of have not been characteristic of the general agitation for higher salaries for teachers, they have been prominent enough to cause teachers to scrutinize carefully before joining and approving a movement which may be entirely false to the spirit and purpose of their work and misrepresent the cause for which they stand.

Last week I visited a town in which is located one of the most important normal schools of New England. The principal of the school said that within the past year the salaries of that town had been increased not less than fifty per cent., that this had been done because the committee found that the best teachers were leaving, that they could not keep them on the salaries they had been paying, and that therefore a general increase in teachers' salaries had been made. This is a natural way for

an advance in salaries to take place, and it is the way that most increases would come about, were no artificial stimulus applied and no artificial obstacle set up.

If a movement takes place for larger salaries it should, for the best interests of teachers, come from the community itself. Teachers can aid in this movement by interesting public-spirited citizens and other effective agencies in the merits of the cause. Among these effective agencies are Mothers' clubs. Mothers are in sympathy with teachers. Because they are mothers they realize the burdens that teachers bear and appreciate the good they do. Educational societies, too, standing as they do for the advancement of all educational interests, will be ready to coöperate. Then there are the Board of Trade and Chamber of Commerce working in a more practical way for the public good; also, the conservative and influential local press which reflects the best public sentiment and which takes active leadership in promoting the welfare of the schools and in appreciating the value of the services which teachers render.

Now by enlisting the interest of such influences as these, I am sure that it will not be difficult in any community to secure for teachers the compensation they deserve. Teachers should remember however that with increased compensation should come increased efficiency. A teacher should regard an increase in salary as the means of personal improvement and of enlarged usefulness and efficiency. A community, too, has a right to expect that for

a larger expenditure it will get better results. We must impress upon the people the idea that teachers are interested first in improvement of the schools and not in personal gain and that increased salaries mean better teachers, better schools and better training for the children. This may be conservative doctrine to preach in these days, but it is one which will stand the test of time and of which we shall never be ashamed.

Let us, as teachers, also remember that our salaries are not the thing of chief import. The best things in life cannot be had for money. There are many things which come to the teacher as her own peculiar reward which all the wealth of the rich cannot buy. The devotion of children, the appreciation of parents, the respect of the community, the approval of conscience, the lasting personal influence which remains with children long after they have left our hands and which may guide them even when we have become dust, these are the teacher's real reward.

We are engaged in a great work, and we must realize that the money we get will always be but a partial recompense for the work we do. High above salary and material things are personal honor, professional spirit, interest in our work, a great desire to do good and unselfish devotion to the lives of others. Let us meditate on these things. What shall it profit a teacher if she shall gain the whole world and lose her own soul?

STATE PENSION SYSTEMS.

HON. WALTER E. RANGER,
COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
PROVIDENCE, R. I.

In the matter of retired teachers' annuities, if we study their beginnings, benefits and significance, we find a story of absorbing interest and inspiring promise. If we observe how few teachers, in our fraternity of half a million, may possibly profit by them, we realize how little has been accomplished. If we confine ourselves to what has been done there is little to tell. If we consider teachers' pensions as a factor in securing greater permanency and efficiency among teachers, ways and means for their successful establishment, and methods of their administration, we have a subject of great educational interest but one of which we have but little experimental knowledge.

Teachers' annuities may be classified on the basis of administration and support. In practice mixed examples are sure to occur, because in public enterprises for social betterment advance is often found most easily in a union of private and governmental effort. We may, then, group teachers' annuities, granted on retirement from long service into four classes: I, Those established and sustained by private organizations; II, Those administered and supported, wholly or in part, by municipalities; III, Those supported with state aid and administered by municipalities; IV, Those provided directly by the state. It seems essential to consider the various kinds of annuities to find the place of state pensions among them.

A fine example of the first class is the Carnegie Foundation. This does not apply to public school teachers, but it is possible for other Carnegies to establish a fund that does. It is quite possible that private benevolence in the future may establish funds of this class. In sharp contrast with true pensions, granted for service, are annuities earned by the payment of contributions or premiums, made to voluntary associations of teachers. Annuities come from the interest on a principal or fund, and to show how to establish an adequate fund from the low salaries of teachers in any town or city is a task that might test the ablest actuary.

In the second class the city or town, usually through its school committee, is authorized by special or general act to create and disburse a public school teachers' retirement fund. Massachusetts has recently enacted a general law for such purpose. The sources whence the fund accumulates are such as (1) teachers' contributions of a given per cent. of their salaries, usually required, (2) special or regular municipal appropriations, (3) income from legacies, donations, and (4) receipts from teachers' bazaars. Annuities are paid to teachers retiring after thirty or thirty-five years of service. Several cities and towns have established such retirement funds. A large number for a beginning, a small number relatively to the number of towns and cities. An illustrative example is Providence, which began the creation of a retirement fund in 1897. The school committee reserves one per cent. of teachers' salaries, and the teachers by

their efforts have raised large sums. Any teacher who has contributed to the fund five years and has taught 35 years (men) or 30 years (women) in public schools, of which service 20 years has been in the city, is eligible to an annuity, equal to one-half of his salary at the time of his retirement. Also provisions are made for teachers incapacitated for service. The first annuity was granted in 1902. There are now 22 recipients of annuities, and 13 other teachers are to retire this year. The income from the fund has been found inadequate and the amount of each annuity has been necessarily decreased.

A third class includes annuities sustained as in the preceding class with the addition of state aid.

There are now but two examples of the fourth class of teachers' annuities, that of pensions paid by the state, without teachers' contributions, not dependent on local means or disposition, and open to teachers of every locality. Such are the pension systems of Rhode Island and Maryland. The act providing for the pensioning of school teachers in Rhode Island was passed in April, 1907, went into effect January 1, 1908, and has given opportunity to teachers to retire on pensions at the close of the school year in June. Already the applications of sixteen teachers have been approved and six more are under investigation. The number of state pensions this year will not exceed twenty-five. These pensions began to run July first and will be paid quarterly on the last day of each quarter. The amount of each pension is one-half of the average contractual salary during the last five years preceding retirement, no

pension to exceed \$500. The highest pension already granted is \$500; the lowest \$165; the average of all, \$358. Pensions are determined by the State Department of Education and are paid from annual appropriations made for this purpose.

To prove his eligibility to receive a pension the applicant must establish by a satisfactory evidence the following facts: age of sixty years, thirty-five years of service in teaching, twenty-five years of service in Rhode Island, last fifteen years of service in Rhode Island, no contract preventing retirement, average annual salary for last five years of service and proper certification of qualifications.

Already the presentation of pension claims has revealed the need of improvements in the laws such as providing for cases of need among those recently retired from a service of 35 years; provisions for retirement on account of disability incurred in teaching after a given length of service; and the striking out the requirement of 60 years of age. A service of 35 years is alone sufficient grounds for a pension; if pensions are to be granted.

The advantages of state pensions over local systems are obvious. (1) State pensions apply to all teachers of all communities; local systems, to teachers of a few favored places, leaving teachers in many towns with no similar provision. (2) Its benefits are distributed equally to different parts of the state. (3) All the people of a state are together sponsors for the system, and adequate income is assured, the best test of a pension system. (4) It promotes unification of work, and strengthens state educational administra-

tion. (5) One state system may be more fairly and economically administered than many local systems.

(6) It is in accord with the theory that the state (meaning all the people of a state acting together) is primarily responsible for efficient school education.

(7) It is based on the principle that a pension is granted for service rendered; and is not conditioned on previous payments of beneficiaries.

(8) The sovereign will of the people is exercised unhampered by local objection or indifference.

For these reasons, if teachers' pensions are to become generally established in American educational practice, I am confident that state pensions are to become the ultimate form of their support and administration. There is a wide difference between the efforts of teachers, aided more or less by the general public, to secure for themselves protection in old age, and the broad principle that pensions shall be granted to teachers on the grounds of public service, as part remuneration for that service.

"Why should teachers receive a pension any more than a stenographer or dressmaker?" In reply to this common question, a large majority of citizens would say: "There is no reason." In truth, it is not an easy task to-day to justify pensions to the satisfaction of the public. It may be easy sometime, when public opinion recognizes teaching as distinctionly a public service, when the continued shortage of teachers shall have made necessary some state system for recruiting and training teachers, and when teachers thus enlisted

and trained shall have come into the permanent service of the state, with freedom for employment in town or city.

These are some of the arguments or reasons which persuaded the General Assembly of Rhode Island to enact her teachers' pension law: it will help keep the best teachers in the state. It may attract other good teachers to the state. It will thus help solve the problem of scarcity of teachers, and secure a more permanent body of teachers. In this connection it will encourage better training and promote efficiency in teaching. Teachers are paid low salaries and a pension is simply a little more pay, so adjusted as to secure large returns for the amounts expended, and distributed to those who have given their lives almost exclusively to the public service of teaching. As may be seen, these reasons imply an aim to secure for the future greater permanency and efficiency in teaching, rather than to give teachers what they deserve for past service, though the justice of the latter is recognized.

Although the legislator may not give much consideration to the needs and deserts of the teaching fraternity, and may support teachers' pensions more for the public good than for the personal advantage of teachers; we, as teachers, cannot fail to appreciate the recognition thus given to the work of our class, rejoice with our fellows who for years of faithful service are to receive enlarged recompense, and find satisfaction in the evidence presented that teaching as a calling is constantly rising in the esteem and honor of our people.

THE TEACHERS' COMPENSATIONS.

PROF. WILLIAM T. FOSTER,
BOWDOIN COLLEGE.

(Stenographic Report.)

When I read upon this program the general topic of the evening, The Recruitment of the Teaching Force, and when I heard the plan for a state pension system just set forth, which holds out the promise of half-pay after thirty-five years of service, I wondered how many stalwart boys and girls would be attracted to teaching by any such expectation.

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On approaching the subject of teacher's compensations, our first grateful thought is that the wisdom of the city fathers has freed us from the danger of wasting ill-gotten gain in riotous living. For, although the United States paid its teachers last year over \$350,000,000, the share that any one of us received offered no temptation to dress up in the snobbishness of suddenly acquired wealth. A committee of the N. E. A. found that in only four out of 48 of the principal cities of the country was the minimum teacher's salary equal to the earnings of street and sewer laborers working fifty weeks in the year, while in the rural schools the pay was found to be so preposterously low that it is hard to tell whether to call the condition shocking or ridiculous. The committee of our Maine Teachers' association found that although

the average pay of women operators in our cotton mills was \$378, the average pay of women teachers in our elementary schools was less than \$200. It seems as though our teachers, like the monks of the middle ages, should be pledged to celibacy, poverty and obedience.

One day I visited the common schools of a small city, where I found young women devoting themselves heart and soul to a work which required education, professional training, refinement, attractive personality, high character, sympathy, enthusiasm, cheerfulness, tact, vicariousness and constant self-improvement. The same day I visited the paper mills of the same city and found young women sitting in a stolid row, each by a machine which was sending forth bundles of paper bags. They were putting strings around the bundles. The girls did not even count the bags. The machines did it. They were doing work which required not one of those high qualifications which are absolutely necessary in the schools. And yet the people of that community paid the girls who were handling their paper bags twice as much as they paid the girls who were handling their sons and daughters. It does seem as though our subject this evening should be "The Teacher's Lack of Compensations."

Still there are hopeful signs. Last year the Board of Education of the city of Chicago refused to raise the salaries of the office boys in their employ to \$800 a year, on the ground that there were teachers in the public schools of the city who did not receive so large a salary. This is hopeful, this

bit of evidence that society is at last coming to believe that the function of the teacher is as valuable as that of the office boy. But it is not to teaching as a trade that we should look for her highest rewards.

On the whole, teaching as a trade is a dull and unprofitable business. But teaching as a profession—as one of the most difficult and engrossing and important of the fine arts—ah, that is a different matter. The trader seeks personal gain: he aims to give dollar for dollar, or rather one dollar for several dollars, and he is bankrupt if he gives out more than he takes in. The professional man seeks the opportunity to serve. He is never paid in kind. He is a failure unless he gives more than he receives.

Even among school teachers there are those who make their work a trade and those who make it a profession. Everyone who has had to do with education is acquainted with both kinds. The trader worries through the prescribed number of hours and drops his work with the precision of a cash register. He would delight the heart of a labor union—if it had a heart. At the first toot of the whistle he unshoulders his burdens, as the hod-carrier drops his hod half way up the ladder. He retreats from the field of labor pursued by the fear that, in some unguarded moment, he may do more work than he is paid for doing. But although this dollar and cents man is the rule in many a factory, he is the exception in schools. Among teachers the other group is far larger—those whose devotion out-runs the hours of the longest day, those whose

chief reward is in the labor. As we observe these two classes, we are convinced that there are only two kinds of teaching—that which is good for nothing, and that which is good for so much that money cannot pay for it.

I have yet to hear of a person attracted to teaching by the expectation of short hours and long vacations who was not sorely disappointed. The United States government is now adding to the desecration of the landscape—as though Wilson's Whiskey and Peruna posters were not enough—a gaudy poster representing a wooden-looking soldier with brass buttons and countenance and a big gun. The poster cries out: "Men wanted for the United States Army," and it offers the inducement of an easy life, free bowling alleys, free fodder and a splendid chance to see the world. Those who are attracted to teaching by the hoax of short hours and long vacations belong in the class with those who are attracted to the army by any such call. In both jobs, there is a rude awakening for the raw recruits, who, as a rule, are not worth having at any price.

Not long ago, when I had a position to fill, there appeared among the applicants a young man whose first question was, "How many hours shall I be expected to work?" and I said:

"Mr. Blank, I do not expect you to work at all. What I want is a man whose first question is, how much shall I be allowed to do? You had better join a labor union which will protect you against the danger of overworking."

The other day, at a reception, a woman discussed

with me the question what her nephew should do after graduation. And she said, "I know what I want him to do. Business seems to me too hard for him. I want him to become a college professor. You know Horace is not very strong."

Error crushed to earth will rise again. Year after year we find it our duty to divert weaklings from the profession of teaching by dispelling the illusion that an easy time is among the teacher's compensations.

For the majority of men and women, teaching offers but meagre compensations. The supreme rewards are beyond their grasp. They may be able to manipulate stocks and bonds so cleverly as to control the supply of food and fix its prices beyond the hopes of starving families. They may be able to work their employees and the rest of their machinery to the very limit of productive capacity, with their hearts closed to all but dividends. They may be able to use the votes of listless, ignorant, drunken American citizens for their own selfish ends, riding rough shod in the glare of a cheap notoriety, over the sensibilities of other people. They may even shut themselves up in honest devotion to science until they have pried out an atom to contribute to the sum total of human knowledge. But for such persons teaching would be but a barren trade. It is a fruitful profession only to those who constantly have the view point of the other fellow, who lose sight of personal ends in generous enthusiasms, who think in terms of others, who live for others, whose instinctive altruistic attitude toward all the sons of God has taught them that

he who would find his life must lose it, and he who loses his life for My sake shall find life and find it more abundantly.

In the Educational Review for April, a man from Syracuse says: "Teaching usually belittles a man—his daily dealing is with petty things of interest only to his children and a few women assistants." "Teaching usually belittles a man. His daily dealing is with petty things." Let us waste a few minutes on these petty things. In the schools of the United States, there are now sixteen million of these petty things, the boys and girls to whose keeping we must soon commit the greatest experiment in Democratic government which the world has ever seen, into whose hands we shall confide, as one by one we lose our grip on life, all the achievements of this generation and all the hopes of the next. Is there not something precious about each one of these petty things?

At the dedication of a school building in Massachusetts, Horace Mann once said: "This hundred thousand dollars shall not have been spent in vain, if this institution saves a single boy."

After the exercises, someone said to him, "Of course, this school is very important, but surely you exaggerated when you said that it would be worth so much money if it saved a single boy."

"Not if it were my boy," replied Horace Mann.

Each of these sixteen million pupils is somebody's child. To the man whose sympathies are cramped within his pocketbook; whose vision is cut off by his back-yard fence, this other person's child

seems, naturally, a very petty thing; and for such a man, we must admit that teaching would be a belittling trade—if, indeed, he had not already reached the vanishing point of littleness.

* * * * *

To those of you who have caught the spirit of my words, it must be clear that the supreme compensations come to the teacher, if they come at all, quite unexpected and unsought. Social prestige, glory, praise, success—these should not be among the teacher's dreams. "The pleasure of the race is in the running, not in breasting the line, and hunger is an infinitely sweeter thing than satiety." "To travel hopefully is a better thing than to arrive, and the true success is to labor."

And so the teacher must retain the vision of the ideal, and be content to efface himself. If his pupils seem unresponsive, if his subject fails to inspire, if he fears that his work is unappreciated, his fears are pretty well founded. The chances are that he has neglected that great province of truth, which should be his first business, in order that he might impress upon others a thing as small as himself. Even the great teacher finds the ideal ever receding, but the teacher who is not willing that he himself should be forgotten cannot even approach the ideal.

* * * * *

After all, is it true that the compensations are meagre? Do you envy the girl who gets more dollars for dealing with the things of commerce? If

so, go with me to the paper mills of Rumford Falls. Sit by the machine an hour, a day, a month, a year. Examine a paper bag with care, consider its possibilities, examine a hundred, a thousand, sixteen million. Then go with me into any school room, no matter how small and barren it may be, and look through the unfathomable eyes of those petty things before you into those precious human souls. Ah, there—there is the supreme reward. Would you go back to paper bags for twice, for ten times the pay? If so, go; teaching has for you no compensations. If not, then finally and forever grasp the ideal of teaching as a profession—a profession which constantly sacrifices things for human beings, a profession in which the true success is to labor, a profession utterly incompatible with weakness, or cowardice, or laziness, or vanity, or self-seeking, or narrowness of vision; a profession in which he who would be great must first be humble; a profession in which he who would find his life must lose it.

Whatsoever things are true,
Whatsoever things are honorable,
Whatsoever things are just,
Whatsoever things are pure,
Whatsoever things are lovely,
Whatsoever things are of good report,

If there be any virtue, if there be any praise, if there be any compensations in these things, then teaching has its rewards and may have them more and more abundantly.

THE MAINTENANCE OF AN EFFICIENT TEACHING FORCE.

FRANK E. PARLIN,
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
QUINCY, MASS.

The most essential factor of a good school is not a fine building, an expensive equipment nor an elaborate course of study, but an efficient teacher. "As is the teacher so is the school," is as true as it is trite. A well arranged course of study, an adequate equipment and a convenient building will surely enhance the value of a teacher's service and of none so much as that of a first-class teacher, but these things can never make a good school. There must be a mind to teach, a heart to sympathize, a will to control, a personality to attract, an influence to inspire, and a friend to lead the children into the fields of knowledge and the paths of righteousness. Having these, the school will be successful regardless of material conditions, without them, money can not prevent its being a failure. The superintendent who can maintain an efficient teacher in each school under his care will thereby demonstrate his professional ability and render to the community his greatest service. But can it be done? In some places, yes; in others, no; at least, not according to any rational and generally satisfactory standard of efficiency. While it is true that the average degree of efficiency of teachers throughout the country is gradually rising, there are three substantial reasons why many com-

munities must continue to have inefficient teaching and, consequently, poor schools. First, there are not enough good teachers, to say nothing of first class teachers, to meet the demand. Even if all graduates of normal and training schools of every description were fit to teach, a condition far too largely contrary to fact, the supply would still be very inadequate. Second, many cities and towns cannot or will not pay salaries sufficiently large to command the services of good teachers. Therefore, these cities and towns must continue to train teachers for their richer or wiser neighbors and each year replace their best teachers by untried and inferior ones. Third, there is as large a percentage of incompetency among superintendents as among teachers because, unfortunately, there is no magic power connected with the office which transmutes ignorance into knowledge, folly into wisdom or failure into success. The educational stream rarely rises above its local head. A person whose knowledge of the principles of education, of the art of teaching and of the nature of the child, is vague and indefinite, who lacks force, tact, executive ability and most of the other elements of leadership, is not likely to inspire much confidence or to increase greatly the efficiency of his teaching force. When the blind lead the blind beware of the proverbial ditch.

The interest the community takes in its schools, the attitude of the people toward the teachers and the educational reputation of the city have a perceptible influence upon the efficiency of the teaching force. If the people are indifferent toward

their schools, if they treat their teachers as merely respectable servants or as objects of condescending consideration, not quite as important as dress-makers, milliners and trainers of horses and dogs, and decidedly below lawyers, doctors and bankers, the teachers do not enjoy it. They very justly feel that their work is not properly appreciated, that they can do better and be happier elsewhere. Only large salaries will induce them to serve under such conditions. If the educational reputation of the city is poor, good teachers do not seek employment there. They like neither to defend nor to apologize for the school system with which they are connected. To be conscious of inferiority or even of being thought inferior, is apt to dull the keen edge of enthusiasm and to diminish efficiency. It stimulates the ambition and effort of teachers to know that the people are actively interested in their work and that their schools are favorably mentioned even if they are not widely known. Teachers are proud of a good name and strive to maintain it. Legitimate pride in one's work adds much to the value of his service. Appreciation and a sympathetic interest on the part of the citizens is worth much to the schools of any community. Therefore, everything possible should be done to establish in the community a right attitude toward the schools and the teachers. As the popular interest increases the schools are sure to improve, first, because the teachers themselves will catch the spirit of improvement and, again, because the people will not continue to tolerate poor schools. They will demand better ones and will pay whatever is neces-

sary to secure them. Sometimes the most important step towards greater efficiency of the teachers is the creation of an active and intelligent public opinion in favor of the schools.

Again, the efficiency of the teaching force is much influenced by the character of the school board. It is a vitally important factor in a school system. If the board consists of a small number of intelligent, public spirited, enterprising persons who have the respect and confidence of the community, who possess sound business judgment and a real interest in education, are free from political influences and from social and sectarian prejudices, the welfare of the children will be the prime consideration and an efficient teaching force will not only be permitted but demanded. But, if the board be so large that its members lose the feeling of personal responsibility for its acts and if it be made up of narrow-minded, conceited and bigoted persons, elected for other than educational purposes and willing to use their official position to serve selfish ends, then the welfare of the children becomes a secondary consideration and the efficiency of the teaching force is liable to be sacrificed to personal feeling or advantage. It is a sorry spectacle when the schools of a city are handed over to the control of persons who have enemies to punish, friends to reward or private schemes to exploit but no appreciation of the responsibilities nor of the profound interests committed to their charge. Nowhere can shameless politics do as great and as lasting harm as in a school board, especially when its virus reaches the

teachers, because it strikes at the vital interests of the children and wounds them in such a way as to handicap them for life, even if it does not utterly blight their brightest prospects. Few things are more contemptible than the dismissal of a good teacher or the appointment of an incompetent one through the influence of nepotism, politics or prejudice. When such things are possible, not to say probable, competent teachers feel worried and insecure and, knowing that their tenure does not depend upon merit, seek an early opportunity to free themselves from the unhappy conditions and to enter the service of those who set a proper value upon ability and worth. The incompetent give little thought to improvement, expecting to retain their positions through the same influences by which they secured them. Thus, fear on the one hand and unworthy confidence on the other tend strongly to diminish the efficiency of both. A school board which has a reputation for quarreling or of treating its teachers unfairly must offer unusual salaries to secure first-class teachers, because such teachers can always obtain positions and they prefer peace and justice even at less salary. Moreover, the quarreling is apt to become contagious and to spread among the teachers, creating unhappy suspicions, distracting rumors and corroding jealousies, even when it does not divide them into hostile factions. Therefore, a fundamentally important step toward maintaining an efficient teaching force is to secure a competent school board and a harmonious working of its members. A wise distribution of functions de-

mands that the school board confine itself to business and legislative duties, delegating professional matters to experts. The superintendent should be its agent, executive officer and professional advisor. If he be a strong man, he will have much influence with the board and, by wise and tactful management, will usually be able to secure a good administration from even mediocre men. But he must be something more than a pedagogic library bound in calf.

Upon the superintendent depends more largely than upon anyone else the efficiency of the teaching force. To maintain that efficiency he must be able to select competent, at least, potentially competent supervisors, masters and teachers. He must know a good teacher when he sees her at work. He must be a good judge of human nature and know how to match persons and conditions, how to avoid misfits. The selection of new teachers to fill vacancies in his corps is one of his most important functions. If he knows how to pick out good teachers and has at his disposal the means of securing their services, all parties concerned are to be congratulated. He must allow nothing but the needs of the children and the fitness of the candidate to influence him in his nominations. On these considerations he may safely take his stand and a large majority of the citizens will stand with him. All sorts of influences will be brought to bear on him and all sorts of motives will be suggested to turn him into the paths of expediency or favoritism, but he must screw his courage up to the sticking point and keep his eyes upon the children.

If he once yields to unworthy and unprofessional motives he is likely to have a very troublesome precedent in his way for a long time. Instead of satisfying the demands of those who would use him for their own selfish ends he will find he has only made them more importunate. He may listen to their sophistries patiently but he must never allow them to hood-wink his judgment. It is the custom of persons who ask favors which should not be granted first to flatter, then to put forth specious arguments and failing in these, to threaten the superintendent's official head or reputation. Let him be neither fooled nor frightened. Let him never stultify himself by nominating a person he believes to be unfit. The majority of most school boards will support a superintendent who knows good teachers and insists upon naming them for election. There can be no general rule for recruiting the teaching force. The quality of the teachers whom the superintendent can secure and the sources from which he may draw depend upon local conditions. If the city maintains a good training school, is surrounded by many smaller towns or pays comparatively large salaries, an ample supply of well qualified teachers may be found quite easily. But if it has no training school, is in the midst of larger and wealthier cities and pays small salaries, the problem presents quite a different aspect. The supply must then come from the colleges, normal schools and rural districts.

This constant march of teachers of ability from the smaller and poorer towns toward the larger and wealthier cities continues and the loss of ef-

ficient teachers is constantly transferred to the less fortunate communities, until the towns last in the series often find themselves in desperate condition. Thus it is clearly seen that efficiency is necessarily a variable standard depending upon conditions beyond the control of local authorities. There seems to be no promise of improvement in this respect until the schools are organized into state systems and are supported by a tax levied upon the property of the entire commonwealth, until the burden is distributed according to ability to bear it and equal opportunities are given to all children regardless of residence.

To eliminate the incompetent is usually quite as difficult as to secure the election of the competent, especially if they are residents of the city. If the efficiency of the force is to be maintained, there must be some pruning. As long as a teacher is doing fairly well and is improving it is generally wisest to retain her, for such teachers under skillful direction often become strong and valuable. No teacher should be dismissed until the supervising officers have made a faithful effort to save her from failure, not even the hopeless cases which can be saved only by a miracle of complete metamorphosis. But when a case is found to be hopeless either from incapacity, lack of effort or degeneracy, there should be no hesitancy about removal. Otherwise, the constant loss of the cream of efficiency from the top and the gradual accumulation of the whey of incompetency at the bottom will leave a decidedly skim-milk corps. The person who declines to eliminate incompetent teachers in-

injures the children just as much as though he appointed the unfit.

The next important function of the superintendent is to organize his assistants and teachers into a harmonious and efficient working body, with unity of purpose and without waste of energy. Every person should be assigned his place, given his responsibilities and, in that field, have his rights respected by all. Each supervisor, master and teacher should understand what is expected of him and the duties of one should not conflict with those of another. There should be no useless red tape but every person should know what his functions are and to whom he is responsible. The organization need not be elaborate, only definite to be effective. The supervisors and masters should be directly responsible to the superintendent who should make clear to them their individual duties and their common interests, always holding himself ready to offer helpful suggestions but rarely to issue orders. The supervisors should have full charge of their special subjects, having a definite time and place assigned them upon the several school programs. During this period teachers and pupils should be under their direction and all should heartily co-operate with them to make their service most valuable. They should not be allowed to overrun their time allowance nor to upset the daily programs by irregular and unexpected visits. The masters should have full charge of and responsibility for their several schools, guided by the established course of study and by the rules and regulations of the school board. Teachers

should be under their supervision and direction and be expected to meet their requirements. They should fix the standard of conduct and the rules for the government of the pupils in the corridors, upon the play-ground, during general exercises and while going to and from school, but should rarely interfere with the control of the pupils in the class rooms, unless requested to do so by the teacher in charge. The class room is the teacher's province. There she should be given the greatest freedom consistent with the unity, harmony and efficiency of the school. She should be held responsible for results both in discipline and instruction. All communications between the school and the homes represented should be through the master or with his approval. Teachers on the one hand and parents on the other should go to him to make their reports, complaints, requests or to transact any business which concerns the school. The masters should carefully inspect the work of the teachers, should encourage and help them but should respect the individuality and influence of each. Supervision which tends to destroy individuality, discourage originality or to discredit a teacher in the eyes of her pupils is not merely useless but absolutely vicious. Supervision should be positive not negative, suggestive not mandatory, clear, constructive, encouraging and inspiring. All bright and progressive teachers welcome and enjoy such, but when it becomes indefinite, destructive, unsympathetic, mere petty or peevish fault-finding, it freezes the fountains of ambition, arouses a spirit of resentment,

stirs up a whole brood of fears and sorely tries the souls of good teachers. While it is sometimes necessary to show a teacher that her work is wrong, that she is failing to secure the desired results or that she is unwise in handling her pupils, this should not be the characteristic work of supervision. The school as well as the home has suffered much because those in authority have too often acted under the old negative law of "Thou shalt not," the law which inhibits but does not suggest action. It closes up one way without opening another. The teacher understands that she must not do this or that but is not told what she should do instead. We are living under a new dispensation, under the new and positive law of "Thou shalt," the law which tells us what to do rather than what not to do. Point out the right course and usually there is little need of forbidding the wrong. Do and don't are the two poles of criticism. One is positive and constructive, the other negative and destructive. The farmer who never plants but spends all his time hoeing down weeds will have only a barren patch of ground for a harvest. Supervision is the art of leading teachers to do enjoyably their best, not of making them miserably conscious of their faults. In the first place, the master should see to it that the physical conditions are as favorable as possible for effective study and successful teaching—that the pupils are properly grouped in classes, that seats and desks are suitably adjusted, that the defective in sight or hearing are favorably placed, that the daily program makes a wise distribution of the

time, that the several subjects are assigned to appropriate periods of the day and that pupils and teachers are provided with necessary materials for work. Next, he should carefully observe the teacher's work—her control, both its spirit and its strength; the character of her instruction, its accuracy, clearness and interest; the degree of attention and effort secured; her assignment of lessons, their length and definiteness; her spirit and general manner, whether cheerful or gloomy, severe or sympathetic, quiet or noisy, systematic or disorderly; the way she adapts herself to the individual pupil, the dull, the bright, the nervous, the timid, the confident, the industrious and the lazy; the way she begins and closes a lesson; and all those characteristics which mark the difference between a successful and an unsuccessful teacher. Having carefully observed and studied the teacher at her work, the master should, if necessary, make suggestions which will improve her relations to the pupils, diminish the waste of time or energy and increase the value of her services. Whether these suggestions should be made privately or in a teachers' meeting depends upon whether they are needed by a single teacher, by several or by all. Of course, the superintendent will inspect the work of the teachers as often as he can and will suggest to the masters possible improvements in their schools. If he makes suggestions to a teacher, he should fully inform the master in regard to the need and character of those suggestions so that there may be no conflict. The organization of the schools should make a definite distribution

of functions and should place upon each person definite responsibilities always accompanied with adequate freedom. It is unreasonable and unfair to tie the official hands of a person by multiplying rules to cover all the details of his work and by withholding all power of independent action and then hold him responsible for results. The best way to develop and to prove the ability of a person, good or poor, is to give him much freedom of action and then hold him responsible for results. Responsibility stimulates the competent and freedom disarm the incompetent, giving each full credit for his success or failure. If, under these conditions, supervisors, masters and teachers cannot secure reasonably satisfactory results, the superintendent should recommend such changes as seem to him necessary for the good of the service.

When the schools are properly organized and supervised, all forces are pulling, and pulling in the same direction. Having organized his corps, the superintendent must give it the right professional pitch, must inspire it with the right spirit—with ambition, loyalty and cheerfulness, with mutual respect, confidence and co-operation. He must aim to develop an *esprit de corps* which will make everyone proud of his profession, glad that he is a member of that particular body of teachers and happy in the success of his associates as well as in his own. He must cultivate enterprise and devotion, enthusiasm and optimism; establish unity of purpose and harmony of action; stimulate those qualities which weld a body of workers together, make hard work enjoyable, reduce friction and in-

crease efficiency; which make teachers believe in themselves, in one another, in their pupils and in their leaders; which co-ordinate effort and produce good team-work. Most teachers are more in need of appreciation and inspiration than of instruction. In any case, the inspiration will more than double the value of the instruction. The *esprit de corps* depends largely upon the spirit and example of the superintendent and masters. If the superintendent is democratic, cheerful, generous, energetic and progressive, if he is thoughtful as well as active, if he really loves his profession, appreciates his teachers and is interested in the children, the teaching force will catch his spirit, and growth and improvement will surely follow. The same thing is true of the masters. The leader who can criticize in kindness, who can make his associates his enthusiastic friends, never lacks followers, never fails to call forth their best effort and, if he knows his work, never fails to secure good results. A wise use of oil always greatly diminishes the wear and tear of machinery, reduces the energy required to run it and, at the same time, increases the quantity and improves the quality of the product. The oil in this case is not emotional gush, unmerited praise or senseless flattery. It is just good honest appreciation, sympathetic interest, kindly criticism, friendly suggestion or hearty approval. It is professional ability and enthusiasm, personal honesty and magnetism, cheerfulness, tact and good sense. It is competent and inspiring leadership. Of course, if the leader has no conveniences for supplying such lubricants, it is exceedingly unfortunate and the

educational machinery must chafe and rattle on as best it can, suffering much from the lack. If the teachers are to be united into a harmonious and efficient body, they must have a leader in whom they have confidence both as a guide and as a friend. They must feel that he knows what he is trying to do and that they can always depend upon just and fair treatment at his hands. The masters catch the spirit and enthusiasm of the superintendent and pass them on to the teachers who, in turn, transmit them to the pupils. Thus, the efficiency of the schools may be greatly increased by the inspiring influence of a single man.

Next to direct observation and intelligent criticism the teachers' meeting offers the best opportunity to help the teachers. Too often the opportunity is so much abused that it yields a negative result. Whether teachers' meetings will increase the efficiency of the teachers or not depends entirely upon the character of the meetings. It is not always safe to judge of their value by their number. When the multiplicand is zero it requires a very large multiplier to yield a significant product. If teachers are frequently called together to listen for an hour to mere prattle, peevish fault-finding, commonplace generalities or to newly hatched devices whose only merit is novelty, their efficiency will certainly be diminished rather than increased. The more thoughtful are likely to become discouraged and disgusted, while others are quite sure to get befogged in petty details or be led away from sane methods of work into a maze

of pedagogic vagaries. Misplaced emphasis and an inordinate desire on the part of someone to be original, often dissipate the energies of the teachers and confuse the minds of the pupils. Some teachers are lectured so much that they become intellectually callous. They dutifully attend all sorts of meetings and classes, sit patiently but passively through them all and, going out, straightway forget every thing they hear. From September to June there is a meeting for this grade on the first Monday of each month, one for that grade on the second Tuesday, a masters' meeting on the third Wednesday, a general meeting on the last Thursday, and so on. It is doubtful whether teachers' meetings can best be fixed by the phases of the moon. It is better to call them when there is something important to be said or done; something of more value than the time required to attend them; something that will either add strength or remove obstacles, that will make the course of study more profitable, the application of right principles more general or the spirit and co-operation of all more perfect; something that will broaden the teachers' field of thought and interest, add to the fullness of their lives, enhance the value of their service in the schools or strengthen their influence in the community. Teachers appreciate and enjoy meetings in which live subjects are handled in a live way and real help is given towards solving real problems, meetings in which the opportunities as well as the responsibilities of their calling are made clear and from which they go

with fresh knowledge and new courage. In competent hands and under favorable conditions, teachers' clubs not only give professional help and inspiration but provide social improvement and general culture. In order to do most for their members, such organizations should not confine their programs strictly to schoolroom subjects. The inefficiency of teachers is too often due to narrow experience and observation, to lack of general information and culture. They may know the subjects they teach but do not know the relations of those subjects to other fields of knowledge nor their relative values when applied to the practical affairs of life. There is also far too strong a tendency on the part of teachers to confine their conversation, reading and study to schoolroom details and devices, or to the accumulation and elaboration of facts involved in their special field. Instead of constantly broadening their knowledge and interests, they gradually contract them to the narrow limits of a single grade or even of a single subject. Talk with them about these and they are interested and speak freely, sometimes overwhelming one with the mass of facts magnified all out of proportion to their importance. But when the conversation leaves the school and enters the general field of art, industry, literature or society, they become dumb and uneasy. A little knowledge is a dangerous thing not so much because one may miss some fact having an important bearing upon his work, but because it leads one to confuse accidentals with fundamentals and inoculates him so

thoroughly with conceit that he is rendered absolutely immune to all new ideas. Most teachers of five or more years' experience do not so much need to magnify details of their work as to extend their field of view, not so much to study books on pedagogy as to read standard works of general literature, not so much to increase their interest in school as to cultivate an interest in affairs outside and in subjects not distinctively educational, not to associate more with teachers but to associate more with intelligent persons in other callings. Such a course of action will increase their efficiency as teachers, their attractiveness as friends and their value as members of society. Teachers need their own associations for general reading, for the study of public matters and for the discussion of current questions. They also need to associate with intelligent persons actively engaged in the various fields of trade and industry—with those who are doing the world's work. Otherwise they are apt to become dwarfed, pedantic, clannish and unattractive, and are likely to have little knowledge of the real world for which they are supposed to be fitting their pupils. They need frequently to get away from school talk, school manners and school associations and take a plunge into the broad stream of human thought and life outside.

Let our teachers continue after entering the schoolroom to be normal, sensible growing human beings, retaining a vital touch with nature and the affairs of men.

There is one thing more which will greatly in-

crease the efficiency of the teaching force and this is the elimination of habitual school offenders from the regular classes. In the schools of every city or large town there are found certain boys who are actively and persistently offensive and troublesome not only in school but elsewhere. They are not merely thoughtless or mischievous, but morally obtuse, of depraved tastes and criminal tendencies. Such boys should be eliminated from the regular classes for their own good as well as for the good of the other children. The regular teacher should be relieved of their presence so she may be able to give her thought and strength to the usual work of the school. Most of these boys are abnormal and need special training. They are usually either without any effective parental control or are subject to a demoralizing home influence. If they are ever to become useful and law abiding citizens, the work of reformation must be done in the days of their youth. They must, at least, be taught self-control and obedience to law. To tolerate lawlessness, defiance and moral depravity in school boys is not only to wrong the boys themselves but to injure the well disposed and to threaten society. When a boy through neglect or evil tendencies persistently chooses a wrong course, adopts a hostile attitude towards good order and the rights of others, defies all authority and control, the time has come for positive and decisive action. Force must back up moral suasion until reason can get a hearing. There should be a room centrally located, in charge of a wise and able-bodied man, to

which boys of this class may be sent after it has been demonstrated that they are not amenable to the rules of a well-ordered school or that their influence upon the other pupils is pernicious. They first need to learn to obey and to respect duly constituted authority. They require a strong teacher and a government which is not only kind and firm but able to exact full and prompt obedience. In this way, we may remove from the schools an intolerable nuisance, greatly improve the conditions for effective work and prevent a tremendous waste of the regular teachers' time and strength. Not infrequently do two or three vicious boys, sometimes girls, demoralize a whole class or even a whole school, rob themselves and all the other pupils of the benefits offered, make the life of a good teacher miserable, waste her efforts, exhaust her energies, blight her hopes and drive her disheartened and discredited from the profession, simply because she is unable or unwilling to enter daily a physical contest with these coarse, lawless young savages. It is unreasonable to expect a sensitive woman of intelligence and refinement to continue in a position or profession where such a thing is required or expected of her.

A word should be said about the promising young teacher whose ambition, enthusiasm and despotic New England conscience will drive her to physical, if not to professional ruin, unless someone gives her some sane, sensible, fatherly advice about work and recreation. Generally she is the picture of health and will make a first class teach-

er, if she learns at the beginning how to take care of herself. She knows how to work and enjoys it but does not know how to play nor appreciates the imperative need of it. Left to herself, she will live in her school. She will go early in the morning, work unsparingly all day, remain for hours after session, lug home an armful of papers and spend half the night in doing things that can better be done some other way or not done at all. She eats and sleeps with her school duties week in and week out, giving her mind no relaxation nor her body any adequate exercise. The result is, after a few weeks or months, she loses her appetite, can't sleep, begins to worry, becomes nervous and sensitive. Then the pupils trouble her and she begins to scold, becomes hypercritical and sarcastic, or loses courage and breaks down. Everything seems to have gone wrong and she feels that she has failed. The poor girl is sick and, worst of all, needlessly so. Her failure is due to someone's neglect. Superintendents and masters should carefully watch their inexperienced and over-conscientious teachers, insisting as firmly that they observe the fundamental laws of good health as that they observe the rules of the school. The efficiency of a teacher's service depends upon nothing more constantly than upon her ability to maintain a good physical condition—the very foundation of buoyancy of spirit, keenness of mind and most of the other elements of success. On the other hand, there are teachers who give so much time and thought to social and other outside matters that

they unfit themselves for their best work in the school. These, too, need a little fatherly advice.

To summarize, the efficiency of the teaching force in any community will be promoted by increasing popular interest in the schools and by creating a right attitude towards the teachers, by selecting for the school board well qualified persons who will insist upon running the schools for the benefit of the children and conducting them upon honorable and businesslike principles, by appointing the best available teachers and eliminating the hopelessly incompetent, by such an organization of the teaching force and such a distribution of functions as will give every person his individual responsibility coupled with adequate freedom, by expert supervision and constructive criticism which shall be not only instructive but appreciative, inspiring loyalty, happiness and professional pride, by removing from the regular classes any pupils who persistently thwart the purpose of the school and waste the time and energy of the teacher, by teachers' clubs for special lines of reading and by leading teachers to associate more with persons in other callings and by considerate care for the health of any over-ambitious or conscientious teacher that she may keep herself in good physical tone. Finally, while the maintenance of an efficient teaching force depends upon many conditions, it depends more upon the force, skill, good sense, absolute fairness and genuine kindness of the leader than upon anything else.

THE AGE PROBLEM IN THE GRADES.

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(Stenographic Report.)

I assume that all teachers are troubled, more or less, by the age problem in the grades. I wish to refer to two facts: one, the dropping out of school of a large number of children at as early an age as possible; and the other, the embarrassment that teachers experience in promoting children who are old enough to go on, but who do not seem to have done the work of the grade well enough to be promoted. At a teachers' meeting which I once held on this subject, a supervisor said that in her opinion, principals were in the habit of promoting children too freely and rapidly. The result was that children were entering the seventh and eighth grades who ought not to be there, and whose presence injured the work of those grades and lowered the standard of the school. If many of these children were kept back, the work of the upper grades would, in her opinion, be much better. The teachers of the seventh and eighth grades who were present, applauded this statement, but the principals, whose duty it is to decide upon the promotions, sat thoughtfully silent.

Shortly after this meeting, I learned that in one of our schools a teacher was having a great deal of trouble in her room; the discipline was hard and

the children were not making satisfactory progress. Apparently the school ought to have been a good school. The building was new with every modern arrangement for good work and located in a good school community. The teacher to whom I refer had a second-grade room. Upon investigating the general conditions of the room, I found there children of a great variety of ages many of whom had failed of promotion once or twice—a few even three times—because they had never reached the required standard of promotion. It was these older pupils who were making least satisfactory progress and who were causing the teacher the greatest trouble. It struck me that it was not at all strange that a school room which really ought to have been made up of small children, but which actually consisted of a few little children and a good many older boys and girls—the most of the latter “repeaters”—all attempting to do the same work, should be an unsatisfactory room to teach and a hard one to manage.

If more children were kept back in school, I shall have to admit that the formal promotional work of the seventh and eighth grades would be better; but we must remember a few things. What I am going to say may appeal more to the superintendents and to principals than to grade teachers. Many grade teachers fear that when their pupils leave their hands somebody will think they have not been properly prepared for the next grade. We must remember, however, that our main object is the good of the children and not the reputation of the school or the personal feelings of the teach-

er. We have a large body of school children to deal with and it is our duty to do the most we can for these children. It is absolutely certain that we cannot do the same for all. Children come into our training from the greatest variety of conditions, and no amount of effort can ever reduce or elevate these children to the same level. We have held too closely to the idea that all children must reach a certain formal standard of achievement before they are promoted. I think this is a false doctrine. We must, it is true, have some method or plan of promotion by which repetition of work by some children may be necessary, but there is such a thing as holding children back to their own injury, with loss of hope and courage on their part and with little improvement in their grade work. The best standard of promotion is the good of the individual child as judged by a wise principal and a humane teacher.

The suggestions that I want to make here I hope will appeal to your common sense. The general rule ought to be that children shall be promoted with others of the same age; that children in a school ought to be studying with others of about the same age, it being understood that degree of mental development is included in the general term, "age." It is a pitiful thing to see a little fellow of six compelled constantly to work or play with others of ten or eleven. It is an unnatural condition. But it is far more pitiful to have boys of girls of ten and eleven working in the same class with children of six or seven. In general, children need to be associated with others of the same age.

A teacher asks, "what shall I do with such a boy?" I will merely advise her not to be too anxious about him. It is probable that he may not be able to gain as much from the work of the room as brighter children, better prepared, will gain, but it is not necessary for this reason to keep him down; help him on with others of the same age and let him pick up what he can in school. He may gain more in this way than he would by being kept back. I should not spend much time trying to bring him up to grade. I should let him go along, and if the teacher is doing inspiringly and helpfully the work of the grade with the other children, he will probably get more in that room than he would by repeating the year's work in a lower grade. Children of this class usually gain year by year. They gain by coming in contact with older children and with teachers who are used to working with older children. Varied experiences break up the routine of monotonous conditions and interest them in their work. If kept back they are likely to drop down to the level of the younger children they are with, and not advance in development according to their years.

Now it may be that there is not merely one or two but a large number of these children to deal with, who will retard the work of the rest of the pupils and who therefore cannot be ignored. We cannot let them drift. A very useful thing is a special room for children who are found to be misfits in other rooms. This can often be accomplished without any additional room by so grading the children of a building that a room can be given up

and used for these pupils. Let such children have a teacher who will give them individual help and attention until their work shows that they are able to take their place in regular rooms with other children of the same age. Children often develop slowly until a certain age after which development is rapid. You probably have met children who work along without showing any ambition or much ability until they suddenly become ambitious and able to do good work. Such cases are not infrequent.

Another suggestion is the employment of an extra teacher for a building or for several rooms. This has been done in many schools with great effectiveness. The work of this teacher is to take pupils out of the regular class in certain subjects for individual instruction. In this way these children can be carried along until they are ready to take their place with the class doing regular work.

One more suggestion, and that is the introduction into schools for pupils of this class of a great deal of manual and industrial work. The great body of boys and girls are going out into the world to earn their living with their hands. The man who works with his hands is as useful to the community, in his way, so long as his purposes are right, as the man of larger learning and higher social position. We should give our boys and girls such a training in school that good purposes and wholesome habits of life and of thought will be established in their lives. If we can do this for a community we are doing more than if we attempt to give these pupils an intellectual training for which

they are by nature unqualified. The manual and industrial work appeals to boys and girls who are slow with their books. Through this work they often do better work with their books. If we introduce this work systematically in the grammar grades, I think we shall do much toward stopping that rapid dropping off of children who leave school as soon as the age limit is reached. These children usually drop out because they don't find anything at school that interests them.

Furthermore these children should have an education at school which will not only interest them but which will assist them in earning their living when they go out into the world. A trade, industrial, or vocational school for grammar school graduates who do not intend to go to the high school should follow these manual courses in the grades. The high school is open to everybody, but comparatively few attend it. Perhaps one in ten of the public school pupils graduate from it. We need a school for that larger number of boys and girls from fourteen to sixteen years of age who do not intend to go to the high school but whose practical education should not end with the grammar school. In such a school, pupils should receive the kind of training that will assist in preparing them directly for their life's work. Children who have completed the eighth grade and who have done the manual work in the grades which I have suggested will be prepared for this industrial training school, the chief function of which shall not be merely the teaching of a trade, but the education and development which comes from a training of this sort.

These are all the suggestions that I have to make in regard to the age problem in the grades. This problem is with us. Our school system is not meeting, as it should, the requirements of many children in our cities. These children remain in our schools as long as the law compels, and then leave. We ought to have a democratic system which will so meet the needs of all classes of children that they will remain in school impelled by their interest in what the school gives them and not because they are compelled by the requirements of the law.

PROBLEMS OF THE COUNTRY SCHOOL AND THEIR SOLUTION.

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It may be that the problems which have confronted me in my work during the past six years may not be the ones which you have met with, but they are real problems and not theoretical ones.

I. UNDERPAID AND UNTRAINED TEACHERS.

I think that the most serious problem which we have to face is that of teachers who have had little, if any, special training for their work and who, consequently, are underpaid. No one can deny that the two are closely related. The teacher who

has had good training for her work, and by this I mean who is a high school graduate and has had training in a good Normal school, may at first receive inadequate compensation for her services, but as surely as she continues to teach, unless she has some marked weakness, her salary will increase with her teaching years. I may be wrong, but am beginning to feel that the salary of a great many, many teachers is commensurate with their services. I believe that the matter of salary follows pretty closely with the wide-awake, progressive, well-trained teacher.

We have teachers in our schools who have had very little, if any, special training. I believe, and I would strongly emphasize this word, that it is the chief duty of us as superintendents, to seek to make our present teaching force as efficient as possible.

Learn in what respect the weak teacher is weak. Make a special study of her case. Seek to apply the remedy and do it at once. Is she weak in actual knowledge, lacks book knowledge? See that she is supplied with text-books which you can loan her from your own library, from the high school or the library of the town. Do not wait for her to get them, get them for her yourself. Tell her that she needs to study these books.

Is she weak in discipline? Talk with her frankly in regard to this and tell her plainly in what ways she can improve. Ask her to visit the schools of other teachers who are strong disciplinarians. I believe that a great many teachers who would otherwise have been failures, have become eminent-

ly successful by being directed to the schools taught by strong teachers. We are not discouraged by coming into contact with strong examples. They serve to urge us to do likewise, or better.

I would say the same for teachers who seem to have little method in their work; who do not know how to do things in a good way. Tell them definitely where the weakness lies and ask them to seek to improve. I think that we fail^{as} good supervisors a great many times in not stating clearly what we would like to have done in a better way. Whenever we send a teacher to visit other schools, we should tell her just what we wish her to observe. Young teachers often do not know what is the right thing to do. It is our duty and privilege to plainly direct.

Most of our teachers, we superintendents are not to be excepted either, are woefully lacking in our reading along pedagogical lines. I am frank to confess that in my own case I have not been awake to this absolute necessity until quite recently. The text-books and articles bearing upon our work until recently have not been altogether readable to the laity, but now there are many which are intensely interesting. It will be impossible for us to encourage our teachers to read until we know what to read and until we have read ourselves. Let us form reading clubs, teachers' libraries, and various other helpful means to create an interest along this line. No superintendent may ever hope to arouse much enthusiasm in this part of the work until he himself has become enthused.

It has been my aim during the past few years to

bring my school board to realize that teachers must be better trained before they enter our service. I am glad to report that much has been accomplished along this line. All of the teachers in our country schools are graduates of high schools or academies and of normal schools, with from 2 to 5 years of experience in teaching. We use our country schools for training schools and give our teachers to understand that they are to do the very best that can be done during their year of service there. If there are vacancies in the village schools, and they are ready to fill them, they are given first preference at the end of the year. It is our policy not to make changes during the school year.

We encourage our teachers to visit the schools of the teachers in the village; to visit the schools in larger towns or cities. We feel that in this way they are increasing in usefulness, not alone for work in later years, but for the work in the schools where they now are.

II. SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Perhaps the next problem which confronts us is the school building itself. There was on the part of the builders of many, I may say most, of our country schoolhouses very little thought as to location.

One building is placed on a high hill, unprotected by trees or shade of any kind. Had some thoughtful teacher years ago had her pupils set out a few trees, some shrubs, plant some vines so that they might partly relieve the bareness and suffering,

we would be reaping the reward. If it has not been done, it should be done now. One or more trees should be planted each year. Some common shrubs should be planted so as to furnish shade on some part of the school grounds. These are not only restful to the eye and body, but make homes for the birds. Vines may be planted near the stone-wall, at the base of some tree, or a pile of stones may be made in some corner so that ferns, vines and common wild flowers may be growing near by. We allow these things to go on from year to year without being done. Let us do it *now*. Do not let it go for the next man to attend to, but cause the work to be commenced.

Another school building is located on low ground. This condition is more serious than the other. While such buildings must always be damp and unsanitary, the conditions may be relieved. See that all damp places are filled so that there may not be water standing within the limits of the school grounds. School boards will gladly acquiesce in your having this work done in some way or another. I have in mind a school building located in a swampy place and one kind-hearted man, although he had no children in school, filled with his own labor, including team and helper, several wet places. He called the attention of the Road Commissioner to the place and solicited his help.

Outhouses should be as far as possible from the school building. There should be separate buildings for the boys and girls. Separate walks and separate entrances. This is not the case in many of

our out-buildings. These should be carefully looked after and kept in good condition. All marking should be discouraged and quickly erased. Teachers should appoint monitors to attend to this. Too often a teacher feels that it is not becoming for her to look after this part of the school work. It should be one of her chief duties.

Schoolrooms are poorly lighted and more often poorly ventilated. Often the matter of lighting cannot be changed. Quite often it can be. We sometimes find that light comes in from all four sides of the room. That entering from the right and front should be shut off by blinds or dark shades. The light should come in from the back and left and windows placed in front so that a strong light comes, even from the left, into the faces of the pupils should be modified.

If there is not light enough, it is often possible to have another window put in at the left or back of the room. By all means cut off all bright front light.

We equip our city and village schools with everything that is modern and leave our country schools with a poor equipment. I am glad that Vermont is being so extensively supervised. Our country schools are bound to be improved by this. We should see to it that the country schools have good equipment, so far as it goes. Do not allow the cast-off books, maps, globes and pictures of the village schools to be carried to the rural schools. Give them the best. It will be appreciated by teacher, pupil and parent. Seek to make them the best and your village schools will not suffer.

III. LACK OF INTEREST ON THE PART OF TEACHER,
PARENTS AND PUPILS.

There is no country school that is not interesting. There never has been and there never will be. There are more interesting phases in country life and country boys and girls than in that of city life. I wish that superintendents and teachers would realize this. There are more possibilities. There is a better field for labor. There is more response to what may be undertaken and done. This is not theoretical, it is the actual fact. I know what is true in my own field is true in other fields.

It is too often the case that a new teacher comes into a school and makes too careful inquiry as to what the teacher before her did. I would much prefer that she did not know all about her predecessor. She needs to do things in her own way. The teacher should feel, even before she enters her new field, that this is her little realm and that she is to be the law-giver, advisor and helper from the beginning. Seek to enter into the life of the community from the very beginning. Study the neighborhood and its environment. Make yourself interested in the community just so long as you are a member of it. When the time comes that you do not feel in sympathy with your surroundings, do not remain. It is your duty to change. You have no right to remain and receive the money paid you when you fail to feel that you are one of the people. Each teacher should remember that it is her home for a term, two terms or a year, or more. She has no other home.

It depends, almost without exception, upon the teacher as to the amount of interest on the part of parents and pupils. A live, wide-awake teacher, one who loves her work and whose heart is full of sympathy, can but arouse interest in her work in the community. There may be "special days" for parents and friends to visit the schools, there may be "special" inducements placed before the pupils, but I believe that the matter of "interest" in connection with a school lies wholly with the teacher. There may be disinterested parents and there may be uninteresting pupils, but let a teacher who is all on fire begin her work in a community and the fire will soon spread until all are touched with the Divine spark.

IV. LACK OF READING MATERIAL.

By "Reading Material" I do not mean so much the material needed in the classes in reading as that needed by the children for reading in their homes. I have found that a supervisor can be of untold value to a community, especially if this community is geographically shut off from the rest of the town, in assisting the pupils and parents to plenty of good books and magazines.

Arrangements can be made with the library in the town or an adjoining town so that books may be taken out and carried, or sent, to certain sections where most needed. A few books placed in a school for two weeks and allowed to be given out by the teacher, will reach a large number of people. Often there are books in the supervisor's office, which have come as samples, which may be

loaned to the school for a term. I have found this a good way to find out if books are really good and interesting.

In Vermont arrangements can be made with the state librarian so that traveling libraries may be sent out for a few weeks to schools. The only expense involved is the express or freight. Much more use might be made of this later method than has been made. I have sometimes found that the children in a school were willing to subscribe for a paper or magazine to be used in school. Children in rural communities often do not know what are the best books, magazines and papers. We, as teachers, can do much to help them.

V. LACK OF ACQUAINTANCE AND SOCIAL INTERCOURSE.

There are many ways by which a tactful teacher may help the parents and pupils in a community by way of social good times. I think that the schoolhouses might be used a great deal more than they are now used for this purpose. I would have a good time once in a while in the evening at the schoolhouse. I would have the children feel that the schoolhouse is not always to be regarded as a place for work. The co-operation of some of the good mothers, older sisters and brothers should be sought and a program of games, recitations, songs, music, ending with light refreshments carried out two or three times each term. The teacher should put aside all thought of making herself popular and have in mind only the bringing together of her children that they may overcome somewhat their

shyness and begin to learn some of the better "ways of the world."

In the past few years I have made it a practice to have the country schools all close at one time and all come together for a day when we have had promotion exercises, a basket picnic and a general good time. I have found these most helpful and an event to be looked forward to with interest by all the schools.

I have tried to point out some of the principal problems which I have met. I am sure that some of these have been your problems and I trust that I may have been of some little help to you.

THE IDEAL AND THE PRACTICAL IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

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Ideas and ideals in education as well as in almost every other field of human thought and activity are constantly changing. The ideal of yesterday becomes the practical and the actual of to-day. Change, readjustment, progress are evident in all things and we think thoughts and do things that would have been considered by our fathers not only strange but positively wrong.

But to him who is familiar with its history, the progress that has been made in education does not seem to

be either as marked or as remarkable as it has been in many other fields. In education our practices still lag far behind our highest ideals. In fact it is a surprising thing that the approach toward better things has been so very slow and that educational practice still falls so far short of that which is best and even generally accepted in educational theory.

When we stop to think of some of those principles of education which to-day we find accepted as correct we wonder why it is that they have been so long in securing adoption. The history of Public School administration is comparatively brief, for the establishment of free public schools in the sense in which we use and understand the term is of quite recent occurrence. It was as late as 1867 that tuition in public schools was abolished by law in the state of New York. Since that date there has existed in every state of the Union a system of free public elementary schools which offers instruction for seven, eight or nine years from the fourth, fifth or sixth years of age.

To Horace Mann, to Henry Barnard and to other able and farseeing educational statesmen was due the educational revival which resulted in the organization of educational forces so that Public School administration in the sense in which we think of it had a beginning. The control of the schools had before that time rested in the hands of the electors acting through district agents elected in district school meetings. After this they came under the direction of school committees acting for each town as a unit. This state of things exists to-day in almost all towns and cities, although

there are still a few isolated communities which still cling to the district system.

The administrative officers of these consolidated town or city systems as a rule consist of a school committee or board of education, a superintendent of schools and the teachers. In the hands of these officials rests the welfare of the schools in that community in which they serve.

In the method of appointment and plan of organization of school boards there has been very little change or progress during the last forty or fifty years. As direct representatives of the people the school board members are, as a rule, elected by the voters in town or city meeting with considerable variation in the basis of representation. In many municipalities the system of ward or district representation still holds. In other more fortunate places the school board members are elected at large with no regard to districts or wards whatever. Usually the board is large where ward or district representation still holds, and comparatively small when ward and district lines are not regarded. An illustration of the two extremes is the city of Boston. I understand that at one time in its history, the School Board of that city consisted of some 72 members. Within a few years it consisted of 24 members, each of whom understood that he was elected by the voters of a certain ward to represent the interests of that ward in the general school assembly. It is only within five years that all this has changed so that at the present time there are only five members on the Boston School Committee and they are elected at large with no regard whatever to ward or district lines or place of residence in the city. Events have proven

that this change in Boston from a large board elected to represent the wards to a small board elected to represent the people and to serve the interests of all the schools alike was a step toward the ideal. The eyes of the educational world have been fixed on Boston of late. Some other municipalities have already followed her example while still others are in the throes of agitation for a change from a large to a smaller educational board. The small board has been found to be practical as well as ideal. The large board has been proven by years of trial to be cumbersome, inefficient, impractical and unsatisfactory. The school board of 18 or 24 or more members is in no sense a deliberative body. It finds it impossible to manage the schools except through numerous sub-committees which in comparative if not complete secrecy determine upon policies and set them in actual operation and later report their action to the full committee of the board for ratification that is purely formal.

The ideal that is now in the public mind is that of a small non-partisan school board elected at large, and unless all signs fail the time is not far distant when it will be quite generally and practically realized. Of the methods of choosing the superintendent, that most recent product in the evolution of school administration, the most common in the Eastern States is that of election by the School Committee, with one notable exception—Buffalo, New York—where the superintendent is chosen by a direct vote of the people. Buffalo is exceptional, too, in the fact that it elects no School Committee. In many municipalities of the West and Middle West, superintendents are elected by popular vote as in Buffalo although school committees

are chosen at the same time to have charge of the school interests.

Of the two methods of election, that by the School Committee is undoubtedly preferable as it to some degree eliminates politics from the matter and is as near the ideal as we shall probably arrive. Improvement in the manner of choosing the superintendent is to be looked for only as school boards exercise greater care and discrimination in selection as time goes on, because of the increasing recognition on the part of the public and boards of education that the administrative officer should be an expert in his special line, who has studied carefully the problems of education, as well as a man who by temperament and character and personality is especially fitted to direct successfully the interests which must be committed to his care and leadership.

A consideration of no small importance in the administration of a school system is the choice of teachers. This is a vital point of school management and unless it is kept upon the highest possible plane the effect upon the schools is nothing short of disastrous. It is because of failure to recognize the importance of this matter that there are to-day in many communities, weak and inefficient schools in which the results obtained are not at all commensurate with the expenditure of money devoted to public education.

The appointment of the teaching force still rests in many cities and towns entirely in the hands of the school committee with little or no regard for the opinion, judgment, recommendation or wishes of the superintendent. Appointments are regarded by individual members of some boards as a rightful patronage which

accompanies their election to membership in the school committee. It is unnecessary to say that appointments so made are not always bad, neither are they generally good. They are, however, generally so made without discrimination or careful judgment as to fitness of candidates for the positions to be filled and are more likely to be bad than good. Still there is to-day an increasing number of school systems in which the superintendent of schools exercises large influence in this important matter. Much, of course, depends upon the superintendent himself in this as well as in almost every other phase of administration. If weak, he will have no authority with reference to this or anything else. If self assertive, or unreliable, responsibility will be withheld. But if he is a man of personal force, honesty of purpose, good judgment and high character often times the school board will go much farther than is wise or than the superintendent himself desires in entrusting to him almost unlimited liberty and authority.

In not a few places the relation of the superintendent to the selection of teachers is already as near the ideal as it can be. No man with common sense desires to be absolute in any school system. The schools belong to the public. The school board is the representative of the people. As such its power must be final and absolute, if it is to look to the public for support.

That superintendent has all the power that is good for him, or for the schools, or that he should reasonably expect, who is given authority to nominate all teachers who are elected. This does not imply that

the school board should approve all nominations made by the superintendent. It simply means that it should not be possible for the school board to elect any teacher who has not been approved by the superintendent and that the superintendent should not be able to place any teacher in the schools without the approval of the school board. The fact that such conditions exist in many places to-day marks a distinct advance in the ideals and practice of school administration. Not long ago in conversation with a school committee member of a certain Eastern city, I was pleased to hear him say that the school system in his own city was an excellent one, almost ideal in fact. I was particularly interested in this remark because I knew not a little of the conditions existing in the school administration of that city and I felt that his assertion was justified.

The school system in question is that of a small residential city with a population made up for the most part of people in comfortable circumstances, generally intelligent and especially interested in their schools. Their interest is due primarily to their intelligence, but it is much more appreciative and effective because the school board and superintendent and teachers make a special effort to keep the people in close touch with the schools. Furthermore, their children are almost without exception pupils in the public schools—(for it has not yet become the popular thing for the people of even the wealthiest families to remove their children from the democratic public schools). Further still their interest is alive because these people realize that in their children lies one of the most valuable assets that they possess as a city and that for their proper de-

velopment and training they must be provided with excellent schools.

For this reason they have seen to it that a provision of their city charter permits them to choose for membership in the managing board of the schools the best available men and women in the community without regard to party affiliations or district lines.

The school board is comparatively small, consisting of nine members, for the people believe that it is essential to secure quality rather than numbers in membership. This board of education is truly representative not only of the people but of the people's best interests. It understands clearly its duties, its powers, its obligations and its opportunities and it regards it as its highest duty and best opportunity for the promotion of the welfare of the schools to secure and to retain as the executive head of the school system one of the ablest and most efficient of superintendents.

For fifteen years now this board has regarded it not only as a duty but a privilege to elect and re-elect the same man to this important office, knowing that by so doing they are performing their most valuable service for the schools and the public. This man whom they have chosen is a gentleman of fine personal qualities, genial, cheerful, optimistic in his outlook on life and in spite of the exacting duties of his office, still in the fullness of manly health and vigor. He is a man, withal his fine taste, and delicacy of character in point of morals, a man among men, strong but still pure and sweet. This man is scholarly, too, although not so in any extreme or objectionable sense, for he is well balanced in this as in every other way. He is a student

of education and is an educator of no mean ability. Being what he is, he accepts and bears his responsibilities with grace, dignity and efficiency. Another thing, this man is in his own right independently wealthy and as a result is unhampered by fear or worry as to any disastrous consequence to him that may result from a right performance of his duties or as to the retention of his official position.

To the superintendent, the board of education has given power co-equal with his responsibility, demanding of him reasonably excellent and satisfactory results in the work of the schools.

In matters of school finance, his expert advice is sought and respected by the school board as it regards his knowledge of the needs of the system as more complete and reliable than that of anyone else. Because of this manifested confidence and respect on the part of the school board, the public and the city council and the press are in turn inspired with like confidence in his statement of the financial needs of the schools. The superintendent in this system of schools has authority to frame and execute a course of study, subject of course to the approval of the board, although as a matter of fact, his expert judgment upon this phase of school administration is practically unquestioned by either school board or public.

As a logical sequence to the framing of the course of study, the superintendent is expected to select all text-books and to make recommendations of his selections for adoption or approval by the board. In the choice of teachers, the superintendent has been delegated by the school board to select the best that he is

able to find at any reasonable salary which may be necessary in view of the requirements of the positions to be filled and the ability of the candidates under consideration, the board reserving the right of approval or disapproval of all nominations made and salaries recommended. Wise and able, honest and fearless, enjoying the confidence of his board of education and of the public, and having confidence in the board and in the people whom he serves, this man does not abuse his trust. On the contrary, he regards his services for these schools as his life work and gives to them the best that is in him. He does not indulge in or encourage any extravagant expenditures even for the schools, for he regards himself not as a bird of passage, here to-day and gone to-morrow, but as a citizen whose interests in the city and its general welfare are those of any good citizen who is to make it his permanent abiding place. In his management, he is conservative and careful. He does not seek to attract attention to himself or to his schools by any spectacular display of work or methods, for he seeks to prove all things and to hold fast only to that which is good.

With the board of education his relations are those of frankness, fearlessness and mutual respect. He does not regard or demean himself as their servant, inferior or superior. He does not seek to differ from the school board or from individual members of the board in opinion on any matter nor does he fear or hesitate to stand alone in opposition to them in opinion if need be. But his sense of the relation that should exist between the board and the superintendent is such that he can loyally execute the wishes of the board of-

ficially expressed, with good spirit and without unkindly comment or criticism even though he may believe the policy adopted to be a mistaken one.

He never indulges in the game of politics. He has no special favorites among the school board membership. Each member is aware of this and feels that in the personal and official relations that may exist between him and the superintendent he receives only fair and considerate treatment.

The city is comparatively small, so that the superintendent is able to know personally all teachers in the corps and to establish with them feelings of sympathy, harmony and mutual appreciation. This personal contact and interest arouses a spirit of enthusiasm, cooperation and loyalty that finds no plan or suggestion of the superintendent too difficult for the teachers to undertake and carry out. This superintendent helps his teachers to do better and more effective work. To the young teacher, to the discouraged teacher, to the teacher who does not clearly understand the method to employ or the meaning of the course of study, he is always ready to give special consideration and kindly assistance. Teachers approach him with assurance of a kindly reception and with the expectation that they will come away with renewed courage that will make them better able to again take up and carry on their work. And it is this spirit toward the teachers on the part of the superintendent that makes the teacher feel that his visits to the school rooms are to be looked forward to not with fear and trembling but with pleasurable anticipation as a time of uplift for both the teacher and the school.

But this man, notwithstanding his kindness and consideration, is not a weakling. He is not afraid to criticise in a considerate and helpful way and in his selection of new teachers for positions in the teaching force he chooses and recommends only those who are of unquestioned promise, efficiency and ability. He cannot be persuaded or coerced into the recommendation of one whom he believes to be incapable. The school board, the public and the politicians realize this and consequently he is practically unhampered in his choice of candidates. In this he is not narrow. Local candidates receive his first and most careful consideration. If found worthy, they are preferred. He sees that it would be hardly complimentary to his own school system to be able to find among the local graduates no eligible candidates for the teaching force and he believes that there is every reason to assume that the local candidate is as likely to be as desirable as the same person would be if a resident of some other town or city. Thus by his fairness, consideration, firmness and manifest good judgment he wins for the schools and for himself the support and co-operation of his teachers, the board of education and the public.

The teachers in this system of schools have confidence in the superintendent both as a man and as an educator. Notwithstanding this, he gives to them large freedom of judgment and initiative in the execution of the course of study and the performance of their other work and, in every case permitting it, he calls his principals and representative teachers into conference with him, thus giving to them an important share in the determination of matters of policy, methods,

courses of study and text-book selections. He seeks the advice and counsel of his teaching force and finds it of value in the conduct of the school administration. We have said that he is a good citizen. In every cause which concerns the public welfare he has a keen and active interest. He is also a kind friend and a good neighbor as well as a man of exemplary family life, devoted to his home and to its interests.

I have already mentioned the relations of the teachers to the superintendent. A carefully selected corps of teachers, a collection of choice spirits, is the teaching force in this school system. Animated and inspired by the example and encouragement of the superintendent they are devoted to their work. The entire administration of the system is planned and calculated with a view to the assistance and exaltation of the individual teacher. Love for their work, self-respect, a sense of freedom, and a desire for continued improvement in the quality of service marks the entire body of teachers. From the High School Principal to the Kindergarten Assistant there is loyalty, harmony, good spirit and devotion to duty.

It has been said again and again that the teacher is the school and this is true in this system. These schools are indeed excellent. They closely approach the ideal, for the teachers do not forget that the individual child, his welfare, his development, and his training into social efficiency is the central aim of all their endeavors. I have described the various factors, forces and conditions that make for a system of schools that has been called ideal. And the fact that these conditions have continued in these schools for a period of fifteen or

more years gives ample proof that we may approach the ideal in practical school administration. But naturally this question occurs, "Why is it that such conditions may not and do not more generally exist?" The answer is evident. To produce an ideally practical and a practically ideal system of schools, each and all of the elements that are in combination in this school system which I have described must be present. It is not unusual to find a community in which the board of education itself is composed of people of intelligence, character and devotion to the public interest, but in which public sentiment as to education is at a low ebb or in which the superintendent of schools is a time server or in which the teaching force is not devoted to high ideals of service.

In another city or town it may be that the superintendent, although himself of a high type, is in the service of a board of education that is composed of members who are not impressed with a proper sense of their obligation to the schools or he may have a teaching force that is weak and inefficient.

It is possible that the teaching force in a town may be itself keenly alive to its duty to the children and the public, but may be dominated by a superintendent of low ideals or by a board of education which has little real interest in the welfare of the schools.

The result in either of these cases is not good, for a co-operation of elements cannot be secured. But this is not all. The fundamentally necessary thing that is bound in any community to sooner

or later set things right, that will eventually establish conditions that will make for a practical and ideal administration of the schools, that will bring into co-operation and harmony the necessary factors and forces is that which was in the first place responsible for the establishment of conditions approaching the ideal in the school system which we have been considering—namely, an intelligent interest on the part of the public.

In spite of appearances to the contrary from time to time, it is true that the people still rule in this country. And it is to the awakening and fostering of a public sentiment toward the schools that shall be intelligent, interested and active that we as teachers and school officials who know the facts and the needs should address ourselves unceasingly.

It is not enough for us to content ourselves with the careful performance of those duties that concern simply the work of the school room. We must do more. We must go out of our way at all times and seasons to bring the schools close to the people and the people close to the schools. We must leave no stone unturned to furnish to the public a plain statement of conditions and needs. We must do all that we can to cultivate in the public a sentiment of responsibility and an active interest in the management of the schools. In a variety of ways the effort is already being made. Much is being done in many places, but much more should be done. Every effort in this direction, if well directed and persistently maintained, will result in incalculable benefit to the

schools. In fact, it is quite impossible to overestimate the importance of this sort of endeavor, for it wins intelligent appreciation, enthusiastic devotion, political, financial and educational support.

I do not need to go into details with reference to this. In many a town and city there is great need of an awakening among teachers and school officers to the importance of this kind of activity. By means of school exhibits, by teachers' and parents' meetings, by the formation of educational associations made up of all who are interested in public education, by public lectures pertaining to educational topics, by extending the usefulness of the schools to meet the needs and demands of those who have ended their school days, by making the school-houses useful for community purposes as social centers for neighborhood needs; in all these ways and many others, this work of winning support for and enlisting interest in public education may be carried on. This phase of educational work needs more careful study and cultivation than it has yet been given. There is no side of our school administration upon which we are weaker but which gives greater promise of good, for in the end, in every community the character of the schools must depend upon the intelligence and interest of the people themselves. Let these be given and all else will sooner or later follow to produce a system of school administration not only practical but practically ideal.

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD THE NORMAL SCHOOLS PREPARE TEACHERS TO GIVE INSTRUCTION IN AGRICULTURE, HOME ECONOMICS AND MANUAL TRAINING.

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The normal school should welcome this movement, study its bearings on all sides, and co-operate with all agencies that are working for a more effective education. As a matter of fact, many of the normal schools, both in the east and in the west, are actively engaged in organizing lines of work to meet the new demands.

MEANING OF THE MOVEMENT.

The vigorous and wide-spread discussion of industrial education in its broad aspect means much more than the introduction of a few new subjects into the curriculum, more than the reorganization of previous courses along more practical lines, even more than the addition of trade schools and technical courses to the present system of schools. This movement is a part of the large movement of this generation to bring the school education into closer connection with the real conditions and activities of the life of the new century. It means the broadest development of the individual for the purpose of social service, and it includes both the vocations and the avocations of life. This larger

movement explains not only the attempts at the enrichment of the school life, but also the dissatisfaction with results that is prevalent in certain quarters. It calls for constructive rather than destructive agitation, for a thorough consideration of underlying principles rather than the drawing of sweeping conclusions from statistics. Already the schools are feeling the effects in a marked degree of this general movement toward the vitalization of education. The industrial question must be discussed as a part of this larger question of individual and social betterment.

WORK OF THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Specifically, the normal schools must prepare grade teachers and supervisors who can introduce and carry on the various lines which contribute to industrial efficiency. It is recognized that professional knowledge and technical skill must be combined in teacher and in supervisor, and in the preparation of the latter the normal and technical schools must co-operate.

Three lines of preparation are required—first, a careful study of the attitude of children toward industry to determine their natural interests in processes and products, to understand the stages in their development along manual lines, and to determine the relative place and value of individual and group work. One active student of children has found three stages in the development of manual interests. In the first stage the constructive work is under the inspiration of the imagination: perfection of technique is subordinated to the satisfac-

tion of the imaginative need. This stage calls for teachers who can supply the opportunities for the child to work out the spontaneous demands of his developing imagination. The second stage demands useful products and calls for special care in the technique. This is the period of careful training in manual skill and in the development of taste. In the third stage the thought of earning a living begins to manifest itself as a factor in the manual work; it is the period when the natural aptitude of the boy or girl begins to appear.

To meet this line of preparation for teachers an elastic course of constructive work must be worked out in the training department of the normal school. Such a course should present to the child, first, opportunities for the original designing and the making of objects to meet definite needs; second, a series of progressive steps leading to technical mastery. Herein lies the first step in the solution of the industrial problem.

The second requirement in the preparation of teachers is a working knowledge of the great typical industries of life. This is the material to be used in the schools, and must be adapted to meet the needs of each community. The broader the preparation of the normal student the better the results will be.

The first fundamental industry is agriculture. Every one comes in touch with some form of this great occupation. It involves a knowledge of soils, an acquaintance with plant families, an understanding of the processes of plant growth and develop-

ment, and a practical knowledge of the methods of plant propagation—seed germination, cuttings, budding, grafting, etc. Associated with these subjects are an elementary knowledge of forestry, a consideration of the economic and geographic relations of agricultural products in their distribution and uses, and the esthetic problem of the ornamentation of home and school grounds.

The second fundamental industry is home-making. This includes not merely the economic phases of life, but broadens into the large field of beautifying and enriching home life. Every school can do much in a simple way to enlarge the horizon of the future home makers.

The other industries are often grouped under the heading, "shop industries." They include moulding (clay work), weaving and allied occupations, paper and card board work (book binding), wood and metal working. Supt. Harvey has indicated that there are three steps in the mastery of any one process—(1) the determination of what is to be done, (2) the determination of how it is to be done, (3) the doing—the accomplishment of the "what" through the application of the "how."

"The courses must be so organized that they meet the needs of the pupil for mental training and for motor training, and at the same time for industrial efficiency." By organizing the courses a student in the normal school may become practically familiar with the essential materials, the constructive processes, and the useful products of the world's great industries. Some knowledge of machine processes is

essential; this may be gained by visits to neighboring industrial plants and by the use of such simple machinery as the school can afford.

The third requirement in teachers and supervisors is the ability to correlate constructive work with the other subjects of school study so that a vital connection is made with the interests and environment of the children. History should include social and industrial development as distinctly as the political development; English and drawing should become definite means of constructive expression; geography should use the industrial lines as apperceptive centers for understanding world conditions; and mathematics becomes of direct value in practical computations.

REQUISITES FOR INDUSTRIAL EFFICIENCY.

Certain requisites should be emphasized with teachers as essential to industrial success:

First, "a high ideal as to what constitutes honesty in workmanship." Every article should be made "upon honor." Accuracy of construction should be the only accepted standard.

Second, training into habits of close observation and clear thinking. This is fundamental training and links all of the school subjects with a common bond.

Third, economy of material, time and effort in the accomplishment of a given piece of work.

Fourth, a standard of good taste in all matters of design. Art and craft cannot be disassociated.

Originality can be cultivated along lines of recognized standards.

Fifth, group work. The various lines of industry can be organized among groups of workers, so that the abler ones may have opportunities for supervision, and that the principle of division of labor can be applied.

EQUIPMENT.

The normal schools will need an enlarged equipment to meet the demands made upon them. They will need land sufficient to establish gardens for agricultural, biological, and geographical purposes; and in connection with the gardens, greenhouses equipped for laboratory work in plant experimentation and propagation. The services of a gardener or similar expert will be required for at least a part of the year to work in conjunction with the departments of the school. They will also need work rooms equipped for normal students and for children that will give such laboratory and shop conditions as are required for the effective preparation of teachers and supervisors.

SPIRIT.

The teacher should have a broad outlook on the whole subject of individual and social betterment, so that no one phase of the problem overshadows the larger issue. Preparation for co-operative service in the community into which the teacher may be called is the dominating thought.

WHAT CAN THE NORMAL SCHOOL DO
FOR TEACHERS IN ACTIVE SERVICE?

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The Normal School is primarily a professional school. Its graduates are expected to go from its doors prepared to enter upon the work of teaching with a somewhat definite equipment of academic knowledge of the subjects comprised in what is called a common education; of the laws of the human mind; of the history of educational effort; of approved methods of presenting subjects of knowledge, according to the laws of mind, and the precedents of successful teachers; a knowledge of the peculiarities of child life; a familiarity with the school laws of the commonwealth. But more important than all this, the normal graduate is supposed to have a certain poise; an adjustment to the conditions usually met in and around the school, and, better still, a power of adjustment to unusual conditions; a judicial and sympathetic attitude of mind and heart, the foundation of the professional temperament, which may be and must be acquired by the teacher who is to succeed, as surely as by the physician. Like the physician, the teacher must be able to diagnose each particular case. The ready-made diagnosis, the ready-made application, and the ready-made teacher, have no proper field of action outside of the ready-made schools, which are found only under the shadow of normal schools.

No matter how extended the normal course, nor how complete, the best schools will continue to demand experienced teachers. And by "experienced teacher" is meant one who has been proven to have the power of initiative, and of independent and original action suited to new conditions.

What, then, can the normal school do for such while they are in the ranks of active service? I am constrained to say that it can do nothing more valuable than to let them alone; to take away the parental hand and voice that they may do something worth while in a way worth while, if they can; and, if they cannot, to find it out in the most expeditious and merciful way. The right to succeed and the right to fail are equally sacred.

What can the medical school do for the practicing physician?

What can the law school do for the practicing lawyer? The theological school for the preacher? The agricultural school for the farmer? These questions are as barren as that which opens this discussion, and for the same reason. The two apparent exceptions are apparent only. Medical schools and agricultural schools, the two whose work lies within the realm of natural science, must have, or be affiliated with, hospitals and laboratories, and experiment stations and laboratories respectively, and these are, of course, sources of great practical benefit, but this usefulness is largely independent of the association with the school.

The present problem is not to construct a new kind of institution which could render service to those actively engaged in teaching. There might

be planned an institution which would be a sort of experiment station and bureau for assembling and distributing practical problems, solutions, and working plans. Whether such would occupy an open field of usefulness, or simply compete with other agents of the same purpose, is a question that belongs to such problem.

The statement that there are many ways in which teachers may be profitably helped in their work calls for no discussion. But the statement that the normal school is the best or proper agent raises a question which might well be considered.

What means has the normal school, as at present constructed, of giving aid, outside of academic instruction and the highly valuable office of sending out receipts for making hectographs, a list of flowers to study each month, how to mend books, four bulletins a year one of which is the catalogue and may also be franked through the mails?

Through what agency can the normal school deal with practical problems, work out results and formulate data, as do the hospitals, laboratories, and experiment stations? If anyone answers the question affirmatively, he must, of course, answer, the model school, training school, or practice school.

As suggested above, there might be formed a bureau for assembling reports from the field, analyzing the returns, and distributing the resulting data. This bureau would have its corresponding secretary who would receive inquiries from perplexed teachers and send, by return mail, wise counsel.

What are the teachers' problems so serious that

help in their solution would be welcome? And what kind of help is of most value?

There is the problem of the dull pupil. And what a very significant fact it is that the dull pupil is still an unsolved problem!

The help wanted here is, a knowledge of the various causes of "dullness." All the doctors can give on this subject the normal school has given before graduation, for everybody knew that the dull pupil problem was coming. But, now that it is here, this pupil does not come in the list, he is peculiar. What can the normal school do? Nothing, unless the boy is shipped on for analysis.

But, no, the teacher must do the analyzing, with patient, friendly observation, and with tactful sympathy; and, with a fair amount of common sense, must apply such remedies as are at hand.

There is the problem of parents' indifference and hostility; that of poor attendance, insubordination or hostile attitude of pupils; that of a lack of interest and ambition; the problem of how to make the school attractive; how to make history, grammar, reading, arithmetic interesting. The same old problems are ever recurring. Books on psychology, methodology, management; teachers' talks and institute lectures are full of more or less wise discussion of them all. The same old, old, problems face succeeding classes of normal school students, who, in turn, as teachers, face the ever new old problems as unsolved as ever. Every new class of urchins with "shining morning faces," rings new changes and confounds the doctor's rules, and blazes

a new trail for the normal graduate to follow through unheard-of wildernesses of real life.

Fortunate and probably successful is that young teacher who recognizes that the situation is really new and calls for original judgment rather than for memory of pedagogic rules, that no one off the ground can solve the problem, and that the solution of this particular problem is of less importance than that the teacher meet the test of fitness for a work that calls for nothing so much as personal power. A friendly hint now and then, a little steadying, encouragement and sympathy from headquarters, are the best helps for the well equipped teacher. And this is the office of the supervisor.

In order to preserve that poise and proper attitude towards life which is indispensable to the successful teacher, broader views, longer perspective, a renewed feeling of comradeship, a readjustment of motives, a correction of prejudices, are needed. But these cannot come from the normal school. They are best obtained by reading educational papers of the better sort, containing articles contributed by teachers relating their experiences, and by attending teachers' meetings.

Inspiration to loftier ideals, keen intellectual interest in life outside of the school, fresh facts and ideas about the subjects taught through other than pedagogic channels, a realizing sense that school is not all of life for either teacher or pupil, these come of literature, music, art, society, and avocations.

If all this seems far from the subject and in no way to promise an answer to the question, it is none-the-less an importantly true statement of the chief needs and sources of help of the teacher. Whether the normal schools and their teachers contribute much and valuable matter to these sources, I will not express an opinion.

But, as I have briefly reviewed the situation, I am led to fear that if any attempt is made by the normal schools to offer, directly to teachers in active service, aid in solution of their problems, or to direct their work, progress in educational ideals and methods will be obstructed by pedantry, and the best efforts of young, vigorous minds will be discouraged by aged precedents.

Its very primary purpose must make it impossible for the normal school to be an inspiring monitor to the wide awake teacher. Its primary purpose is to present dicta of certain fundamental principles and theories, which the pupil must accept without question. To a degree, teaching is treated of as an exact science, dealing with universal conditions in accordance with established laws. The would-be teacher is looked upon not as an investigator and pioneer, but as a disciple, one who is not to originate but to absorb ideas, who is learning the technique of an art, not developing that art itself.

This relation of teacher and pupil is, of course, ideal in the preparatory stage, but it must cease finally and utterly in the interest of progress. Now, a new relation between the two factors is difficult if not impossible to establish. The sense of au-

thority and that of deference survive long, and are likely to be given up with impatience on the one hand and in rebellion on the other.

Any arrogant assumption that the normal school is, or ought to be, the censor of educational ideas, or the authority for all educational practice, is too narrow to be considered. The idea of centralizing school authority and making the normal schools the official centers of their respective sections fails to arouse enthusiasm.

A more fruitful question than the one that opens this discussion would be: How can the normal school best receive help, inspiration, and new ideas from strong, progressive teachers?

Turning to the model or training school as a means of rendering help to teachers, in trying out methods and solving problems of school life; my first thought is, that artificial conditions yield artificial results. Conditions of life cannot be reproduced actually, on demand. Conclusions reached by the so-called "trying out" method are valuable only when analyzed and interpreted in terms of the actual conditions.

Whatever may be the outgrowth of an experiment in teaching, the immediate value is usually slight or negative. Pestalozzi's idea is a great one and has produced great results, but I confess to some doubts about his school and wonder what would have happened if his contemporaries had taken him seriously and schools had been modeled generally on his plan.

I have great faith in the work of the normal schools in preparing young people to enter upon

the work of teaching with a sound equipment of fundamental principles and safe working theories, and with mental and moral poise. But I have faith also in the school system of teachers, principals, superintendents, school boards, and public-spirited citizens, to use these and energize them into a life of accomplishment as no scholastic influence can.

Mr. Chairman, my treatment has been negative and conservative. I hope it has not been destructive. In any case, I shall be satisfied if it leads to a full discussion, and not displeased if the discussion brings out the affirmative answer which I have not been able to find.

THE FIELD OF HISTORY IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

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Sixteen years ago to-day the N. E. A. appointed the now famous Committee of Ten. One year later the report of the Conference on History was published. With this report began the up-building of the instruction in history, a work which we are to-day engaged in furthering. The report of the Committee of Ten was followed by discussion at various educational meetings, such as the N. E. Association of Colleges and Preparatory

Schools, the Columbia Conference, and the N. E. History Teachers' Association. The discussions finally culminated in the report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association in 1899. This report furnished a careful definition of four blocks or fields of history and emphasized the importance of various adjuncts to the text-book—use of sources, collateral reading, historical geography, topical work, etc. The result has been a vast improvement in the tools of historical study and teaching: excellent text-books prepared by experts and equipped with maps, illustrations and other aids; inexpensive collections of sources and cheap reprints; historical atlases; geographical notebooks; topical outline and reference books. Have the results of the teaching been equally satisfactory?

In the "Nation" of Sept. 12, 1907, and at greater length in April at the spring meeting of the N. E. History Teachers' Association, Professor William MacDonald, of Brown University, for several years an examiner on the College Entrance Examination Board, raised a protest against the results of the present teaching of history, so far as the work appears in the books of college preparatory pupils.

The question of modifying the report of the Committee of Seven was brought before the American Historical Association at its meeting last winter and a Committee of Five was appointed to suggest modifications, if any should seem desirable. The question was considered by the N. E. History Teachers' Association at its April meeting in Port-

land; and to focus discussion the following questions were sent to members for their consideration:

1. Name of school.
2. What is the course in history in your school?
3. How far has this been drawn up or shaped in accordance with the recommendation of the Committee of Seven?
4. What are the limits of the study of ancient history as pursued in your school? Do you include oriental history? Do you seek to bring ancient history down to the year 800? What is your opinion of the field as defined by the Committee of Seven, and in case you attempt to cover that field, what difficulties do you find in doing so?
8. Does it seem to you that the Committee of Seven has laid undue stress upon comprehensive and generalized knowledge and led to the undue neglect of matters specific and detailed? (Report, pp. 47-48.)
9. How much use are you able to make of material outside of the text-book? How much more use would you make of such material if you had more time or better library facilities? Do your students keep notebooks? What use, if any, do you make of sources? (Report, pp. 101-110.)
10. What is the equipment of your school as regards historical books of reference and maps for historical instruction?

The association will publish a report in October. The whole question, therefore, is an open one, and the discussion of just such gatherings as this will aid in reaching a sound conclusion.

I spoke of the report of the Committee of Seven as doing two things: blocking out four fields or periods of historical study, and emphasizing the importance of such adjuncts to the text-book as collateral reading, use of sources, historical geography through the use of wall and desk maps, etc. The committee recommended a four-year course in history, urging, among other reasons, its value in giving unity to the pupil's secondary school course. I would especially emphasize this point, since I believe that a part of the value of Latin as a school study has come from its continuity, what may be called its cumulative value; and I have found that in many commercial courses history is required in each year partly to give unity and continuity to the course. The four fields as recommended by the Committee of Seven are: (1) ancient history, with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations. They recommend closing at 800 or 814 or 843. (2) Mediaeval and modern history, to the present time. (3) English history. (4) American history and civil government. For each period they recommend not less than three recitations a week for one year.

The principal criticisms of this part of the committee's report relate to the extensive periods to be covered in ancient history (about 5,000 years) and in European history (1,100 years), and the teaching of civil government in connection with U. S. history. The Oriental portion of ancient history, however, should be briefly treated—eight per cent.

of the time allotted to the ancient history being the recommendation of the N. E. History Teachers' Syllabus. In that time we should attempt: (1) to give some sense of the enormous antiquity of civilized life; (2) to make clear the geography of this portion of the field and the relation of the Nile and Euphrates valleys and the intermediate district—Syria—to the rise and spread of civilization; (3) to teach briefly the succession of powers in control of this region, culminating at one time in unity under Persia, at a later time under Alexander; (4) to make as definite and vivid as possible the principal contributions of the nations to civilization. Two parts of the field which we are prone to neglect, because the end seems naturally the place to cut off in order to shorten, are the Hellenistic period and the later Roman, from the time of Augustus on. The period of the spread of Greek civilization over the east, its modification under Oriental influences, the famous centers of learning and art, Antioch, Pergamun, Alexandria with its library and museum or university, the period of Euclid and Ptolemy and Archimedes, the Apollo Belvidere and the Venus de Milo is too important to ignore. Let time be saved by curtailing the study of early Athenian constitutional history, the Peloponnesian war, and the wearisome struggles that followed the decline of Athens' political power. The other neglected or slighted portion of the ancient field is the period of the Empire. Too often, in part due to the character of the text-book, this period has been treated as a series of biographies of the emperors, few of whom if we except

Augustus, Trajan, Constantine and Justinian are of any importance. Personally I like to take as the central thought of this period of the first four centuries of the empire the following quotation from West's *Ancient World*: "All in all, an area as large as the U. S., with a population of one hundred millions, rested in the 'good Roman peace' for nearly four hundred years. Never, before or since, has so large a part of the world known such unbroken rest from the horrors and waste of war." The study of the republic must be in large part a study of wars; but unless we study also the works of peace which this world-conquest made possible we fail to learn Roman history's most valuable lesson.

Should ancient history be extended to 800 A. D.? On this point there is wide difference of opinion. The period from 300 A. D. to 800 A. D. is exceedingly difficult yet so filled with important subjects that some study of its main characteristics seems indispensable. Since Ettore Pais has thrown serious doubts on the credibility of early Roman history, before the sack of Rome by the Gauls (c. 390 B. C.), and Professor Robinson tells us that there was no "Fall of Rome," possibly our problem is made simpler. Cannot we pass lightly over or omit altogether a dozen or two of the laws and compromises, and secessions that didn't take place, in the early republic; reduce by three-fourths the battles in Rome's conquest of Italy and thus gain time for a study of this later transition period, reserving for the next year a review of the period before Charlemagne?

The fifth question asked by the Committee of Five on the possible revision of the Committee of Seven's report is: Do you bring your students down to the present day? Do you think it desirable to place more emphasis upon the history of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, either by shortening the time devoted to mediaeval and and earlier modern history, or by giving a special course upon this later period?

My answer is emphatically, yes, bring them down to June, 1908. That means a sacrifice of some earlier period. I have met the question lately by eliminating all study of English history in the European course except where it was inextricably interwoven with continental history. It was a loss but I believe ample compensation was found in a clearer knowledge of present-day events. Should not a course in European history aim to put a pupil in touch with daily news? Would it not be a proper ideal to have the pupil able on the last day of school to read with intelligence and understanding the current foreign news?

Whether civil government shall be taught as a part of the course in United States history or as a distinct subject seems to be a matter of time allotment. With six or more periods a week it would seem wiser to have distinct courses, requiring an earlier or parallel year of study of U. S. history of those taking government. With less than six periods a week a combination of the two into one strong course in history is preferable to two brief courses, one in each subject.

There has come, since the report of the Committee of Seven was* published, a new phase of the question. With the establishment of separate high schools of commerce and industrial training and the development of commercial courses in existing high schools has come the problem of adjusting the fields of history to special ends. While the wisdom of trying to teach the history of commerce and industry—economic history—without a background of political history may be questioned, the emphasis may properly be shifted to the economic features in the political courses. In existing high schools where in the same class are found boys and girls with various destinations in view, college, technical schools, business—the teacher may make the political and social history the subject of the class-room instruction, using the collateral work as an opportunity to reach the pupils' individual purposes.

The second feature of the report of the Committee of Seven was its emphasis on the adjuncts of the text-books. We have already noticed the great increase in quantity and improvement in quality of the tools of the history teacher. May it not be well to consider now the methods of using these tools? But first of all comes a consideration of the workman himself, for valuable and special tools require a skilful workman.

The teacher of history should have, besides his regular college preparation, some graduate training in special lines of investigation in order that the real meaning of historical study may be de-

veloped and deepened. Of equal importance and necessity is his daily preparation, which should consist of three parts: (1) As wide reading on the subject of the lesson as time permits in order to gain inspiration and freshness; (2) a careful reading of the text-book, no matter how familiar he may be with the subject-matter in order that he may fairly understand the pupil's standpoint and preparation; and (3) the careful organization and planning of the lesson, that the salient points be made clear.

What shall be his aim in teaching history? For if his work is to have definiteness, if his methods are to be chosen with intelligence and not adopted because they seem to be the "proper thing," he will have an aim. May I suggest that, in brief, it will be the acquisition by his pupils of a definite body of related, co-ordinated facts, so acquired as to give the greatest possible training? Such an aim is partly cultural, partly disciplinary; both are necessary. To learn and understand his facts the boy must read beyond the limits of his text, must have some knowledge of an historical source, must be able to represent his geographical knowledge on a map; and all these require training.

The first thing that the teacher has to do with is the text-book. One result of the early changes in teaching history has been to slight the text-book. Perhaps those of a dozen or fifteen years ago were not worth any more serious consideration. But in recent years a splendid body of text-books in all fields of history has been published, and

it would seem to be high time that the pendulum swung the other way in the direction of a greater use of a single text for all in the class. I would require the thorough learning of the lesson from this text-book, and I would give drill, drill, drill upon the essential facts, not omitting a considerable number of dates.

In passing, I would put in a word for oral instruction. The teacher who has the right preparation will have such a wealth of historical funds to draw from by way of illustration and amplification that he can print some things indelibly on his pupils' minds and arouse an enthusiasm and interest such as is not possible from any printed page. If it is a fundamental principle of teaching that the teacher should not talk too much, it is equally important that at the right time and in the right way he should talk enough.

But the teacher will wish to make use of collateral reading. How much may reasonably be required of pupils who, perchance, are so unfortunate as to have other studies to pursue besides history? How shall this reading be tested to learn if the pupil has grasped the point the selection was intended to make? A dozen pages a week will produce a yearly total of over four hundred pages. (It is a fair presumption that each year the teacher does as much new reading.) An oral report may be made to the class in connection with the class study of the topic; fifteen minutes may be assigned for a written report in the class from memory. If the number of books from which read-

ing is done at any one time is not large and the references are carefully chosen it has been found helpful to frame several questions based upon the important contribution which each reference book adds to the text, selecting such questions as could not be answered unless the reading had been done thoroughly.

Another question which the Committee of Five asks is: What use, if any, do you make of sources? Here most certainly the secondary school teacher needs to keep both feet firmly planted on the ground. It is doubtful if any teacher now attempts to base his instruction wholly upon source-books and source-extracts. There is, however, a distinct service which such books as Miss Kendall's Source Book of English History and Professor Hart's more extensive Contemporaries renders. They may serve as material for topical work, leading the pupil to see how history is written and to appreciate the problems of the historian; and as references for reading they give a vividness often not obtained from the secondary works of reference. Reading to the class by the teacher with running comments or questions will generally give unexpectedly good results.

Finally there is the question of map-work. This generally comprises the locating of places on the map and the representation of such historical detail as growth of territory, legislative action capable of graphic representation, boundary disputes, etc. In locating places it seems desirable that the pupil should not only be able to mark them cor-

rectly on a map, but should be able likewise so to describe the location as to bring out the essential geographical features. Rome, Carthage, Orleans, New York, Cleveland, Pittsburg, and scores of others readily illustrate the possibilities in this line. The whole question of geography and history in their general relations has been admirably treated by Professor George L. Burr, of Cornell, in an address published recently by the N. E. History Teachers' Association.

With the second kind of map-work there is room for improvement along the line of less slavish copying of existing maps. In American history in particular there is an abundance of material from which a pupil may construct his own maps, either by a comparison of maps, or from original data. From Gannett's *Boundaries of the United States* can be obtained extracts from all treaties and statutes affecting the external and internal boundaries of the United States; while MacDonald's *Select Statutes and Select Documents* give added material, the latter giving also data affecting the geographical status of slavery. Of maps for reference and comparison we have valuable additions in Hart's *Essentials of American History* and in the *American Nation Series*.

The last word as the first must be the teacher. Given an enthusiastic, inspiring, progressive, teacher and questions of method will take care of themselves, problems of fields of study will vanish.

THE ENGLISH TEACHER'S OPPORTUNITY.

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The English teacher is a pioneer in a new country, where he must either blaze his own trail, or follow blindly one blazed by a fellow pioneer with more confidence perhaps, but scarcely more knowledge than he has himself. "The march of the human mind is slow," especially of the conservative academic mind. Once every five centuries or so it awakens to grasp a new idea, as it did at the time of the Renaissance, when it forsook the hollow scholasticism of the Middle Ages for the rich content of the resurrected classics. But once having opened to take this in, it closed again. For a while, to be sure, it had all it could do to assimilate this new life, and for a century or so we see the results of this infusion into the exhausted veins of Mediaevalism in the exuberant vitality of the Elizabethans. In the eighteenth century, however, the life had departed, and the classical allusions used so freely by the wits of that era once more are formulas, as hollow as those of the most decadent scholasticism. At the close of this period, old Samuel Johnson, that great bulwark of classicism, stands like an "outpost of winter, cold and gray," frowning down upon the invading Romanticists, assailing with their life and music and color the forbidding towers of a dreary formalism.

And the literary bulwarks fell before that for-

midable army, officered by Coleridge, Wordsworth, Keats, Shelley, Burns and Scott; but not so the academic. Blissfully unconscious of the new life beating outside, the old master hammered Latin into little "Gualterus" Scott, while Gualterus surreptitiously pored over old ballads and romances. The life of the new school was not born of the university, but of the hours stolen from Homer and Virgil to devote to Shakespeare and Milton.

These were the conditions at the beginning of the nineteenth century, conditions which have persisted with more or less pertinacity up to the beginning of the twentieth—conditions, the influence of which still makes it possible for our high schools to give four periods a week to Greek or Latin and but two or three to English.

Nor is this the only effect of the classic tradition. Owing to its influence, many of the older educators look askance at the parvenu English department, and the young, trained in the classics, are at a loss to know what to do with a literature, written in a tongue familiar to the pupils. They are like the young foreigner, who, on visiting my class, was greatly mystified to find an English teacher teaching English to English speaking pupils. To quote from Mr. Hudson's "English in Schools," "They know not how to come at the great masters of our native tongue, so as to make them matter of fruitful exercise in the class-room. Their minds are so engrossed by the verbal part of learning that unless they have a husk of words to stick in, as in teaching a foreign tongue, they can hardly find where to stick at all."

There is still another complication in the English teacher's problem, and this one is born, not so much of the classic tradition as of the modern spirit of utilitarianism. From college, normal school and the business world comes the cry, "Teach our youth the form—grammar, rhetoric, composition. If anything must go, let it be the literature." In other words, the English teacher is called upon to consider immediate, not ultimate, ends. But recently from the universities has come a new complaint. Our Freshmen come to us from the high school with a positive distaste for literature. What is wrong with the secondary methods? Then various remedies are suggested. And in the midst of all this storm of opinion, is the poor teacher, if he is weak, blown about by every wind of doctrine; if he is strong, holding-doggedly on his own course, though deep down in his heart he fears that after all it may not be the right one.

Now, for a little while, let us leave the controversy itself, and consider the nature of the subject that has given rise to so much discussion. What is this literature anyway, which some teachers make a basis for linguistic study, others a model for feeble juvenile compositions? What is it? Next to the phenomenon of the physical universe, it is the greatest medium through which God has revealed himself to man. The *Rig-Veda*, the Homeric poems, the Hebrew Bible, the *Divine Comedy*, the *Faerie Queene*, *Hamlet*, *Paradise Lost*, *In Memoriam*, *Saul*, *Faust*, *Heroes and Hero-Worship*, what are they all but revelations to the finite, in a series unbroken through ages, of the strength and beauty of the In-

finite? More, literature is the sum and record of all our race has suffered and felt and hoped and thought through the centuries that it has been climbing up from the darkness of barbarism to the light of civilization. The poet, the thinker, stands at the apex of that great pyramid that has its base in the feeling of the many. In him, the big, yearning, inarticulate heart of humanity finds expression.

"In his wide brain, the feeling deep
That struggled on the many's tongue,
Swells to a tide of thought, whose surges leap
O'er the weak thrones of wrong."

Back, far back before the dawn of the historic morning, we hear his clear harp ringing. He was a god then, and men called him Apollo or Orpheus. On the hills of Judea, he wandered in the robes of a prophet, denouncing evil, upholding righteousness, piercing the gloom of sin and degradation with words kindled by living coals from the altar of Jehovah. And when the echoes of his fiery denunciations and earnest entreaties no longer stirred men to lives of purity and deeds of love, when even these had become formulas, another came, the child of prophecy, the great poet, who found beauty and truth in every detail of man's existence and environment—in the fowls of the air and the lilies of the field; in the beggar and the rich young man; in the smiles of a child and the tears of a Magdalene. Again formalism fell, and the human mind opened its rusty doors to admit a glorious new idea, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Then for many dark ages, no

heaven-sent poet came, for those who wrote at Rome had no new message for the world. The result was that for hundreds of years men, misconceiving the true import of the great poet's evangel, struggled blindly on through the gloom of bigotry and intolerance. Once in a while, we hear rising above the riotous shouts of wassail the twanging of a harp string, as the bard, no longer now a god, a prophet, or a son of God, but a flatterer of earthly lords, raises the song in honor of his patron's victories in battle. Yet menial as he is, this early bard is still looked upon by his rude master as one who has special communion with the higher powers. He has the gift of second sight, a modified form of prophecy, and once in a while amid the rude war notes, he raises a "strain of higher mood," as in *Beowulf*. But for the most part, during this era, the poet as teacher is supplanted by the priest—the seer into living truth by the blind guardian of a worn-out form. Then from the abyss of political, religious and social corruption rises a clarion voice—the voice of Dante, and the poet, in his own name and character, takes his place as teacher of the world.

In this sketch of the history of the poet, I have anticipated my next point, the nature of the poet's work. Have you noticed that the great thinker always comes when the world lies bound in the fetters of an iron formalism? Chaucer and Erasmus were protesters against the abuses of the church, and Langland mingled with this protest the cry of the poor crushed down by the nobles. Spenser and Shakespeare came to show the over-spiritual-

ized consciousness of Mediaevalism that this life was good, and man was framed to enjoy it. But Milton and Bunyan had to check the over-worldliness resulting from the forces set in motion by the spirit of Shakespearian England. Addison and Steele, in turn, were forced to fight against the corruption arising largely from the reaction against an over-emphasized Puritanism. Burke plead the cause of humanity against an out-dated political and legal formalism. Goldsmith and Burns broke down the proud barriers that had hitherto debarred from the realm of art, the life of the poor. And in our own country, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell and Harriet Beecher Stowe assailed the selfish spirit of caste that kept a fellow-man a slave.

If the maker of literature had done no more, he would have justified his *raison d'être*. But I have spoken thus far only of his service to the good and true, and still have to remind you of his service to the beautiful. With whose eyes do we see this goodly world? Ruskin has named for us the changing hues of sky and cataract; Wordsworth has cast a mystic spell over lake and mountain; Burns has immortalized the field-mouse and the daisy; Bryant has invested the depths of the forest with an alluring charm; Whittier has taught our hearts to bow "when October's holocaust burns gold and crimson on the hills." And more than this, it was a poet who, standing by Beaver Brook, watching the millions of diamonds and pearls expended in turning the mill wheel, saw the beauty in the souls of poor mortals, forced under the lash to turn the "world's laborious wheels." The men

with whom it is our glorious privilege to commune in spirit day by day are the great seers who have taught the beauty of faith, courage, self-sacrifice, of patriotism, of friendship, of domestic affection, of human brotherhood, interweaving into one divine texture the good, the true and the beautiful, till the separate threads are lost to sight, and we see only life—life as God meant it should be.

And what is the keynote of the poet's teaching? What the golden thread that runs unbroken from the song of Orpheus to the song of Burns? Some of the old Atomistic philosophers taught that the *Nous* or Mind that went through Chaos, marshalling into harmony and order the conflicting elements was Love. And modern philosophy, after centuries of evolution and practice in refined reasoning, is forced in the last analysis to restate in a new phraseology, perhaps, but with no change in meaning, the theory of these early thinkers. Altruism is the panacea prescribed for all ills, ethical, political and social. And what the philosopher teaches in his technical, rational phrase, unintelligible to the many, the poet or man of letters clothes in the garb of life—the life not of the chosen few, but of all mankind. Thousands who have never seen a work on sociology know that the broken marriage vow of Helen and Menelaus resulted in the war of Troy, and that of Arthur and Guinevere in the dissolution of the Round Table. Good and evil, darkness and light, the Everlasting Yea and the Everlasting Nay, what does it all mean in the abstract? Who knows? Never mind. Follow Dante through *Inferno* and *Purgatory* to the

heights where he greets his Beatrice; stand with Faust at the door of Marguerite's dungeon; watch with Christ in Gethsemane. Shall we be guided by faith or reason? We cannot understand the theologian, but we can follow the soul of Tennyson through the valley of the shadow, until the spirit hand of Arthur Hallam leads it to the light. Is the guiding principle of this universe intellect or love? We are lost in the jargon of metaphysics, but Browning answers, "I report as a man may of God's work—all's love but all's law." Can politics exist on an ethical basis? How many can follow the thread of perplexed meaning running through the intricacies of statescraft? Yet there are few who cannot rise to the level of Burke's thought, "Magnanimity in politics is not seldom the truest wisdom, and a great empire and little minds go ill together." What is the secret of all our social suffering and unrest? It would take a Theodore Roosevelt to expound it to the sociologist or the politician, but Lowell has made it clear to the mind of a child in the picture of the proud young knight turning in disgust from the leper. *All sin is selfishness. The wages of sin is death. Love is the leaven of life.* These three truths are at the foundation of all great literature.

What bearing have these truths upon the work of the English teacher? Pause to consider a moment the conditions under which he is working. We are living in an age of transition. Old traditions and institutions are tottering. Again the new wine is bursting the old bottles. Daring theories, discussed at first behind the closed doors of uni-

versity seminars, are gradually leaking out and permeating the upper strata of society. Youth, accustomed for so many ages to succeed to the religion of its parents as to their estate, now stands bewildered, asking, "What shall I believe?" The answer to that question is what will determine the boy's attitude toward life, but who will answer it? A Puritan boy would have gone to the head man in the community, the manliest man, the minister. But, alas, the head man in our community is no longer the minister. Sadly we have to admit the fact proved by statistics, that the clerical army is no longer recruited from the best manhood of our country. There are noble exceptions, it is true, but as a rule, our virile, strong-minded men go into business, law or science. The best thought of our age is devoted to solving the mystery of man's physical existence and environment; the best talent of our day is directed toward the practical rather than the spiritual. Consequently the man whose word an eager youth would respect is not often in the position of a spiritual teacher. The result is that the question of the young seeker after light goes unanswered, and he drifts about without an anchor. His mood is that of the young Byron sitting on the pedestal of a fallen pillar of the Acropolis. The gods of Athens have gone; the Moslem now holds sway; in a few years more, he too will pass, then will come a new belief, which in its turn will find oblivion. All is vanity.

What are the social conditions resulting from this attitude? Look at the world and read your answer. Look at the strongholds in which selfish-

ness has intrenched itself, sometimes even daring to flaunt upon its iniquitous towers the white banner with the symbol of the cross. Look at the law courts sundering the holiest of ties, dividing man and wife as easily as if they were partners in a merely legal contract. Look at the men in government positions, so corrupt and self-seeking for the most part, that when a Roosevelt or a Hughes arises we regard him as a wonderful phenomenon. Look at the hate in the face of the workman, the scorn in that of the employer, and tell me if the Everlasting Nay of Selfishness is not still clamoring to drown the Everlasting Yea of Love.

These are the conditions now in a generation that in its childhood took its creed from the lips of God-fearing parents, then what can we expect from the next generation born and bred in this age, when all things pass and change; when the powerful motive of salvation no longer exists; when psychology identifies the soul with consciousness; when theology deprives us of the hope of a personal immortality, and the very name of religion is tabooed? I was visiting last summer at the country home of one of my pupils, a thoughtful, spiritual girl of thirteen. Half in jest she asked me to describe an ideal man, and half in jest, I began. "He must be very tall and strong, with a powerful arm that could strike straight from the shoulder in self-defense or in defense of someone weaker. And, with this powerful body, I should want him to have a great original mind, so great that a woman could have the delightful experience of feeling her's lost in it. Still with all this physical and mental mascu-

linity, I should want him to be susceptible to whatever is delicate and beautiful in the world—a spiritual man—at this point, my young companion threw up her hands. “Oh, don’t spoil him, don’t make him religious!” If it be true that a nation equates its character to its belief, what is to be the future of our nation? What of those boys and girls who sit before us day by day learning the lessons designed to equip them for the duties of motherhood, fatherhood and citizenship? My fellow-teachers, have you yet awakened to the fact that much of the shaping of that future lies in your hands? That the mantle of the church, and in far too many cases, of the home, has fallen upon your shoulders?

Nor is the future of the religious ideal the only thing that concerns us. Within our province comes also the aesthetic. Ruskin, if he were living in the America of to-day, might accuse her, as he did the England of his day, of despising the beauty of nature and of art. In our America, as in his England, we destroy the haunts of the fairies for the sake of digging coal. The spirit of commercialism is even threatening Niagara in the face of the poet’s inspired protest:

“Niagara, the engine of freedom,
 A creature for base command!
 Thy soul is the pottage thou sellest;
 Withhold thy hand.
 Or take him and bind him and make him
 A magnificent slave if thou must—
 But remember that beauty is treasure
 And gold is dust.”

It has polluted our rivers and cut down our forests. No scene so sequestered but has been defaced by its flaunting advertisements. Whittier's beautiful prophecy is far from fulfilment. In vision, he saw the Golden Age, when rural New England should be adorned with beautiful homes, in which should dwell men and women, "lifted by broader culture, finer manners, love and reverence to the level of their hills."

"Let the poor prisoner, cramped and starved so long,
At Nature's table feast his ear and eye,
With joy and wonder."

So prayed the Quaker bard, but the poor prisoner is a prisoner still. His country home is falling to decay, among scenes whose beauty there is no eye to mark, and he himself shut in between the towering walls of the great city, his ear deafened by the noise of traffic, his whole mind bent upon the problem of maintaining his physical existence, knows nothing of that nature that "never yet did betray the heart that loved her." He may hear fine music, if he will; he may visit art galleries; he may read in the public libraries the noblest literature; but how much time does he spend in keeping alive this finer side—the divine side of his being? In nine cases out of ten, is not the vaudeville, the yellow-covered novel, or a trip to some tawdry shore-resort the stimulant administered to the poor soul craving its spiritual nourishment?

But what has all this to do with our teaching? someone asks. No, I am mistaken. There is no

teacher superficial enough to ask what relation the preparation for life bears to life itself. Yet some may be justified in asking what the teacher has to do with his pupils' religious beliefs, when one of the first regulations of all school boards is that religion shall not be taught in the schools. Let me satisfy such inquirers right here by saying that no teacher has a right to teach any *form* of religion; but, if he be a true teacher, the *spirit* of religion cannot be eliminated from his work; for if he is training his pupils for life, he cannot leave out the essence of life—man's attitude toward his Maker and his fellow-man. The work of some teachers will bear upon this life problem more directly than that of others. It depends upon the nature of their subject. In mathematics, a cube is a cube, a radical a radical, and it doesn't make any difference whether the pupil is a Jew or a Christian; but in two subjects, the secondary teacher's contact with life must, from the nature of things, be more direct. I refer to history and English—history, the record of what man has done in this world, and English, the unveiled record in the Mother Tongue, not only of what he has done, but of what he has thought and what he has wished to do—the reflection of hopes and fears, of joys and sorrows, of aspirations and failures, the fleeting vision of beauty, the poet's kinship with the world about him, the seer's glimpse of truth.

I have tried to show what the conditions are under which we are working—the vortex of selfishness and sordidness into which our youth are swept, the atmosphere of materialism and com-

mercialism in which they are forced to live. I have reminded you of the sad fact that the influence of the church and of the home is not so potent as it was; that our lot is cast in one of those perilous times, when old ideals, fossilized into traditions and obsolete criterions are passing, and there are no great spiritual leaders to create new standards by showing our youth that modernism is but the eternal spirit in a new form. I have further tried to show you that in such crises in the past history of our race, a new thought has arisen to guide the steps of a bewildered world aright. In those by-gone years, men had to find this new thought for themselves; but now it is given to us to present the embodiment of all the new thoughts of past centuries as well as of our own, not to world-weary sceptics, but to youth, who "still by the vision splendid is on the way attended." The boys and girls are tired of preaching; they do not want abstract truth; they have a wholesome horror of anything savoring of Cant; but there is one thing they will still listen to with interest and respect, and that is a life lesson, taught by a virile poet, interpreted by a manly man or a womanly woman.

I have said, too, that the utilitarian values in our day are prized above the aesthetic, that beauty has been made subservient to use; and that you are the Geni with power to lead the men and women of to-morrow into that magical realm where all sweet harmonies are sounding, where the air is heavy with fragrant odors and rainbow colors gleam; or into that darker realm, but the realm of beauty still, where the mists hang low above the

battlefield, where the owl hoots from the tower,
or the elements are mingled in wild commotion in
sympathy with the stormy, sinful heart of man.
In that realm they will meet one who will
tell them that which they need so much to know,

"The world is too much with us,
Getting and spending we lay waste our powers,
Little we see in nature that is ours;"

and one who saw that

"Bubbles we buy with a whole soul's tasking,
'Tis only God that is given away,
'Tis Heaven alone can be had for the asking."

Now let us look to ourselves, English teachers.
What sort of persons are we to whom is delegated
the great mission of revealing this manifold life
to the men and women of the next generation—
men and women who will owe so largely to us
their ideals or non-ideals? Are we "small, weak-
natured, miserable?" Are we Protestants who
would take advantage of Chaucer's description of
the monk or pardoner to sneer at Catholicism?
Are we Romanists who would exult in the corrup-
tion of the English clergy in *Lycidas*? Are we
Christians who would excuse the Christians' treat-
ment of the Jew in the *Merchant of Venice*? Are
we orthodox church members who would join
with Carlyle's brother in calling him a heretic?
Are we advanced thinkers who would find ma-
terial in Emerson to shake the faith of some young
spirit, which has not yet reached the stage where
it is ready for a new one? Are we mystics who,
like Carlyle, see in science only a menace to wor-

ship and wonder, instead of a foundation for a sincerer worship and an intenser wonder? Are we ourselves, like the young Byron, bewildered by the flux of belief and half inclined to throw ourselves into the black abyss of rationalism, forgetting that which is passing is but the form; and that the spirit, which is the soul of literature as of life, is the same yesterday, to-day and forever? If we are any of these, let us be so no more. Let us broaden out till we can touch every point in the circumference of our sphere, that sphere, which, you will remember, embraces the good, the true and the beautiful.

Religious tolerance we must have, but that is only part of our equipment. We must keep so constantly in touch with beauty that insensibly our whole nature will become attuned to the subtle influence of a spring morning, the scent of flowers, the songs of birds, the gleam of stars, the motion of the wind-swept trees, the laughter in a child's sweet eyes, the lines of loving care in the face of age.

Yet important requisites as are spiritual and mental breadth and aesthetic fitness in the equipment of the English teacher, they are not so much so as is human breadth; for, if the soul of every great piece of literature is God, its heart is man. And how shall we interpret this great human heart, unless our own is the microcosm which reflects all the elements of that macrocosm? The sad part of the teacher's profession is that it tends to draw him away from life. His evenings, especially the English teacher's, are so filled with correcting, that

he has but little time for social or home intercourse. The day will come, I believe, when English teachers will have smaller classes and fewer periods, when the teacher who before all others should possess splendid vitality, enthusiasm and energy will not be expected to spend all of his out of school time in the deadening work of reading themes.

Do you wonder that it is hard for a teacher to be a man or a woman in the good old sense of the word? The man who wields no mightier weapon than the red or blue pencil is liable to lose the "wrestling thews that throw the world." The close air of the study is not so conducive to manly vigor as is the breath of woods and fields; nor do the duties of the schoolroom give to a man the alert tread, the keen, practical eye, the ready repartee, in short, the vigorous, hail-fellow-well-met air of the business man. And what shall we say of the woman teacher? Conditions which have done such violence to manhood have done worse violence to womanhood. If the man is in danger of losing "the wrestling thews that throw the world," she is in greater danger of "losing the childlike in the larger mind." The woman who sits down to her desk for a long evening of correcting and studying at the hour when other women are listening to play-tired babies lisping, "Now I lay me," is apt to lose some of the charm of the *ewigweibliche*. And saddest of all, the woman set to guide the young is often apt to forget her own youth, to become a prude, to frown indiscriminately upon all the little boy and girl friendships that come to her at-

tention, and slide over the remotest hint of sentiment in the English work, that the class may not notice it.

The cry now is for teachers with personality, by which is meant men who are men and women who are women. It is an actual fact that pupils often identify the characters of a piece of literature with the teacher. Bearing this in mind, do you wonder that so many English teachers fail? Fancy a poor, weakly-looking man—a man with the stooped shoulders and the sallow skin of a book-worm and the careful speech of the pedant, trying to interpret the character of a Launcelot, a Coeur de Leon or a Roderich! Fancy, again, a prude, a blue-stocking, reading Portia's exquisite lines.

"You see me, Lord Bassanio, where I stand," or imagine a man or woman, whose heart has never thrilled at the downy caress of baby arms, trying to read *The First Snow Fall*! You know Sir Philip Sidney's sonnet in which he represents himself as biting his pen, wooing the aid of invention and study, till the light suddenly breaks upon him.

"'Fool,' said my Muse to me, 'look in thy heart and write!'" So we spend our time inventing methods and studying pedagogical rules, which enable us, it is true, to teach the form of literature, but when we come to the spirit, we shall fail, unless we can look into our heart and teach. I know of a teacher, formerly an instructor in oratory, who gave up her work because she had expressed all that was in her, and felt the need of new experiences in order that she might have something new to express. To be sure, all of us cannot follow her

example, for she married. She had kept a patient man waiting for ten years. Then they started up a camp in a wild part of the country, where they live with their children, receiving, in the summer, pupils, who wish to learn the true philosophy of life—a philosophy founded on work, nature and love. I understand that both husband and wife are wonderful interpreters of literature. Of course, this is carrying the theory beyond the limits of practicability, but the general principle is right.

Please do not think that I am depreciating the value of learning or of the formal side of our work. I shall never be content with myself, nor feel fully equipped, until I have covered the whole range of my subject, from Beowulf up to the latest novel; and when I have mastered my own subject, I shall branch out into others as far as I possibly can. And as for form, I do not believe any teacher in all formal New England spends more time than I in hammering away on grammar, sentences, and paragraphs. But there are now, and have been for ages, countless teachers with this intellectual formal equipment, who have, nevertheless, been found wanting. He is not the great teacher who fills the minds of his pupils with the greatest number of facts, nor is he who teaches them the most correct form, great as we all concede such a one to be; but he it is who transmits from his own magnetic heart that spark, whose light shall consecrate the homely work and care of life, reveal the beauty hidden in the soul of nature and the soul of man, and point as unswervingly as the needle points to

the North, to its parent-light, the soul of the Infinite.

I have attended several conferences of English teachers this spring, at all of which we have discussed the much-vexed question, "Why do our boys and girls dislike the best literature?" We have talked over methods, discussed the value of outlines and abstracts, considered whether or not the drama and novel should be taught as types, whether the master-pieces should be studied or merely read, and all the while I felt as though we were threshing chaff. But the fear of being termed an impractical visionary kept me from rising to express my own sincere conviction that the difficulty, far from being overcome by substituting one method for another, will continue to confront us as long as short-sighted, faithless creatures, who complain if a cloud darkens their horizon, try to interpret the vision of truth that illuminates the lament of the dying Arthur:

"Perchance because we see not to the close,"

or Rabbi Ben Ezra's glorious philosophy,

"Then welcome each rebuff
That turns earth's smoothness rough,
Each sting that bids nor sit nor stand but go!
Be our joys three-parts pain!
Strive, and hold cheap the strain;
Learn, nor account the pang; dare, never grudge
the throe."

The difficulty will continue, I say, as long as

little, commonplace souls, souls that would shrink from the pain that teaches life, souls that retail their poor commodities with no thought but of the financial return, souls that would be more at home in the bustle and glare of city streets than in the holy twilight of the forest depths—as long as men and women like these creep into our ranks to place themselves as mediums between our boys and girls and the great spirits who, out of their own hearts' anguish, their lofty rapture, divine aspiration, and inspired communion with nature, have hewn their mighty monuments of thought. Water cannot rise higher than its source; teaching cannot rise higher than the character of the teacher. Our educators are very careful to procure trained musicians to teach music and skilled artists to teach drawing; but when it comes to that art which is within the reach of countless more than any other—the art which, from the nature of things, must exercise the greatest influence on character, they do not always discriminate. Anyone can teach English. Natural fitness, special training—these are not necessary. Have you not met English teachers who have privately informed you that they “hated the stuff,” and wished they might teach mathematics? You might as well set a mechanic, who had never before touched a musical instrument, to play the Moonlight Sonata as to ask such a person to teach English.

There is a little poem that I wish every English teacher might carry around with him as an amulet to charm away from his heart the scepticism and

materiality of our age. For myself, I cherish it as a proof that one man at least still lives who sees the "thread of the all-sustaining beauty that runs through all and doth all unite:"

EACH IN HIS OWN TONGUE.

"A fire mist and a planet;
A crystal and a cell;
A jelly fish and a saurian,
And caves where cave men dwell.
Then a sense of law and beauty
And a face turned from the clod—
Some call it Evolution,
And others call it God.

"A haze on the horizon,
The infinite, tender sky,
The ripe, rich tints of the corn-fields,
And the wild geese sailing high.
And all over upland and lowland
The glow of the goldenrod—
Some of us call it Autumn,
And others call it God.

"Like tides on a crescent sea-beach,
When the moon is new and thin,
Into our hearts, high yearnings
Come swelling and surging in—
Come from the mystic ocean,
Whose rim no foot has trod—
Some of us call it Longing,
And others call it God.

"A picket frozen on duty,
A mother starved for her brood,
Socrates drinking the hemlock,
And Jesus on the rood;
And thousands who humble and nameless,
The straight, hard pathway trod—
Some call it Consecration,
And others call it God."

Your glorious opportunity, English teacher, is to train our youth to turn aside sometimes from the hurry and bustle and fret of life's heated, crowded thoroughfare into the holy silent places, where they can hear and understand the still small voice that sounds in such a poem as this, as it does in every true poem that has been written through the centuries, revealing God in science, in nature, in the human heart, in the world's history; it is for you to keep alive in an age of commercialism, rationalism and artificiality, the love of man, the love of God, the love of beauty—the blessed Trinity, without which this life would be indeed

"A tale told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing."

Does someone exclaim in despair, how can I fit myself for such a mission? How can I acquire personality, magnetism, charm? And as for all this mental breadth and spiritual height, I am no genius. Did you ever stop to ask yourself the secret of Abraham Lincoln's wonderful genius, his phenomenal mental and spiritual power? Of all men in history, save only One, Lincoln should

stand as the teacher's greatest exemplar. Whence sprang his unerring judgment, his unfailing tact, his boundless sympathy, his "brave old wisdom of sincerity"? I answer, from a source open to all of us—a heart that loved its kind so much that it forgot itself.

"'Tis love that maketh me wise,"

runs an old Eastern song, and on this cornerstone on which all great literature rests, the teacher of literature should build his life philosophy; not a love that falters, not a love that loses faith, not a love that fails when the genial fire of youth has ceased to glow; but one that grows stronger, sweeter, tenderer, as the years go by.

"A love that is not shallow, is not small,
Is not for one or two, but for them all—
A love that asks no answer, that can live
Moved by one burning, deathless force—to *give*."

THE AVERAGE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND HOW IT MAY BE IMPROVED.

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The success or failure of any system of education is exemplified by the average, and not the exceptional, school. The average school and the normal

child are the factors with which educators are primarily concerned. The future of the seemingly untalented boy who fails now and then in his spelling lesson and who is shy of much book-learning is big with possibilities, but he is so commonplace and so numerous that we are apt to overlook his importance to the world. To give this boy the training that will fit him to make the most of himself and his conditions is the great work of the home and the school. Every teacher has a part in it. The average man is the product of the average school, and nothing is so costly to the commonwealth as poor or mistaken teaching.

Modern schools must grow in efficiency in order to meet the increased demands of modern living, and it is a noteworthy fact that never before in the history of our country have the schools been manned by so well trained and efficient a corps of teachers. These teachers meet the increasing demand made upon their time and energy with a commendable spirit, and the schools of to-day are vastly better than the schools of fifty years ago, the critics to the contrary notwithstanding.

It is easier to teach arithmetic, grammar, and geography than to strive "to fit the individual to combine his forces with those of his fellow men." The training of the intellect is important, but not less important, are health, which is the first wealth; the power of co-operation that is the result of social contact; and the spiritual sensitiveness that opens the door to appreciation of art, literature, music, and the comfort and uplift of religion.

The teacher who would aid in preparing children

for rich and useful lives must believe in herself and in them. She should work always in a hopeful spirit, should avoid worry, and should cultivate a fine, high courage.

An article entitled "The Age of Mental Virility" appeared in the Century Magazine of last April. It is the result of a critical study of the lives of four hundred men, famous in all lines of intellectual activity. As a result of a very careful analysis of character and accomplishment, the author asserts that health plus optimism comprise the secret of success, and that optimism is capable of cultivation even to the point of enthusiasm.

Like many other good things, an optimistic spirit is catching, and because of this a teacher should radiate confidence. She should deal out courage and the desire to attempt until the very air of her schoolroom becomes charged with power to do. The exceptional teacher does just this. But the average teacher, like the average mother, is subject to periods of doubt and despondency that react unfavorably upon the pupils in her charge. The beneficial effect of a sunny, optimistic schoolroom atmosphere upon the health, to say nothing of the character, of children can scarcely be estimated.

The best schools to-day are taking into careful account the physical well-being of children, and the average school must fall into line. It seems difficult for teachers to realize that it is as important that a child's eye-sight remain unimpaired as that he know how to read, or that proper breathing

habits are more vital than a correct slant in penmanship.

In the schools of Finland every half-hour period of work is followed by a ten-minute "rest" period devoted to deep breathing, Swedish gymnastics, or an active game in which all the children join. This is in addition to regular outdoor recesses. It takes time, but it makes possible a greater degree of concentration on the part of the children. Better a short recitation or study period with well-nigh absolute concentration, than a prolonged period and half-hearted attention.

There is no school that would not be better for frequent, brief "rest" periods, planned with reference to the age and needs of pupils. There is food for thought in Dr. W. H. Burnham's statement that under the working of the ordinary school program, in which no provision is made for resting pupils in this way, the inattention of children is their salvation, and the uninteresting teacher a physical necessity.

The progressive teacher who seeks to provide for greater bodily freedom on the part of her pupils, and to encourage initiative by planning for more varied self-expression, is handicapped by the arrangement of the ordinary schoolrooms. These rooms are furnished with a view to the needs of the listening child, and the active child has not been taken into account. The day is not far distant when every schoolroom will be a work and playroom, as well as a recitation room.

A rearrangement of furniture has been effected in some of the schools of my own city that has

transformed the ordinary schoolroom into a very satisfactory work room, having a good sized space that can be cleared quickly for games and other physical exercises. All aisles are made narrower, except those on the outside, thus placing seats nearer together, and leaving a large clear space either in the front or on one side of the room.

In first grade schools this space is occupied by a large sand table and an "occupation" table that is supplied with paste pots, brushes, scissors, paper, and colored crayon. Groups of six or eight children are sent to these tables to work independently while a larger group is reciting to the teacher. The tables are mounted on rollers and are easily pushed aside when the space is needed for other purposes.

In grades above the first, the sand table is omitted, and two work tables are sometimes provided.

We are coming to realize that ideas become vivid when they are expressed through the motor activities, and that we are most successful in securing the best voluntary effort of pupils when a proper balance is established between mental and motor activity. Then too it is necessary in these days, when the majority of our population is crowding into towns and cities, that the school give children an opportunity for "individual creative productiveness." The division of pupils into small working groups makes this possible, and solves many problems of discipline and occupation. The noise resulting from two or three groups of six or eight each, working at sand table, occupation

table, and blackboard, is quickly reduced to a minimum when children learn what is expected of them. The old time formal "order" is replaced by an orderly interchange of ideas, and children help one another as they work together in a true co-operative spirit.

It would be well if every teacher were to read the article in the *World's Work* for April, entitled "A School Building Up a Community." It is a convincing argument against the fear that the Three R's will suffer if anything else is taught in a school.

It is true of hand work, as of purely intellectual work, that in order to be educative, it must be progressive.

It takes forethought and ingenuity to arrange progressive work involving correlation with regular school subjects for several groups of children, and a teacher must cultivate the power to think clearly and to the point if she is to do it successfully. Teachers work hard enough, but too many of them waste effort. A definite plan that involves a look ahead toward an end that is worth while will save hours of time and make for increased efficiency along all lines.

It is a sad, and fortunately an unusual thing, for a modern teacher to drift into the state of mind evidenced by a certain kindergarten director, who, when asked by a new and enthusiastic assistant why she did not plan her day's program, replied in all seriousness: "Oh something might happen to interfere with the plan, and then all that work would be wasted."

It must be remembered that while system is indispensable, the best plans are flexible and take into account the individual tastes and capabilities of children. In so far as possible free choice should be allowed, and each child should be encouraged to think and plan for himself.

The best teacher is the one who seems to be the least necessary to her school, the one who acts as a stimulator of thought and as a friendly guide, but who refuses to think and decide for children—in a word, the one who is most skilfully preparing her pupils to stand alone and at the same time to join their forces with those of their fellow-men.

SOME FUNDAMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EFFICIENT TEACHER.

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Efficiency is the great ideal of the day. Efficient use of waste products has meant a revolution in many manufacturing industries. Efficient use of a greater amount of power from coal than we now obtain is being sought for. And the efficient utilization and preservation of the natural resources of our country formed the topic for that great conference at Washington of governors and representative men from all the states. But larger than all these in its meaning is the clamor for an efficient education.

At the present meeting of the Institute we have heard many phases of this subject; and it is proper that we should consider the efficiency of our teachers, for no system will be successful unless taught by those teachers who can and will accomplish results. "The efficiency of the teachers is the first thing necessary for the success of any system of schools," says Ware in his "Educational Foundations of Trade and Industry." (p 140).

As the first characteristic I place natural ability, meaning by this term that gift of nature which fits its recipient for the particular character of a teacher's work. Its possessor is a scholar by nature; having that particular type of mind which gains knowledge readily and with a certain amount of satisfaction in the task. Knowledge is our stock in trade. Hence one must have ability in this line before he can hope for any success in dispensing it. In fact, it is the basis upon which all the other characteristics are founded. But as a teacher's work is to impart knowledge in various ways, this ability, too, must be possessed. The type of mind that enjoys research work is very seldom successful in giving instruction, except possibly in the case of adult pupils. While much improvement can be made in one's methods of teaching by proper study and practice, yet the fact remains that teaching is an art and demands the power to adapt oneself to the exigencies of each case and to discover and remove the difficulties of the learner.

It has been the fault of the earlier product of the normal schools that they tried to put their methods

on a class whole, without attempting to adjust and adapt these methods to meet existing conditions. Common sense, then, that power of independent judgment and courage to act, which we so admire, is another phase of the natural ability, the dowry, so to speak, of the efficient teacher. I think the present danger of teachers is not from the application of an iron clad method to all sorts and conditions of pupils, for we are in an age when of the making of devices there is no end. But rather we do run a risk of thinking that the results of some of the many experiments in child study will fit our pupils individually and collectively. As the normal methods give a standard by which to work so the results of the child study now so much in vogue give a standard for studying our particular pupils. Common sense in the use of this will save us from making many errors costly to our pupils and humiliating to ourselves.

The teacher of the present has to deal with a larger mass of pupils at one time than did the teacher of the ungraded school, in which, although there were many classes, no one class had as many pupils as we find in our present system of one or two grades to a teacher. So our teacher needs the natural gift of capacity for leadership. This means to understand boys and girls individually, for only then can we hope to handle the class as a whole. Dutton in his *Social Phases of Education* (p. 63-65), says: "The first requisite to a successful school is that the teacher know her pupils, that she know each individual as such. How many times this has

been said. And yet how many teachers have a blurred vision which enables them to see the school only in the mass, and that lack of perception which recognizes the infinite variety of temperament and disposition there represented. Many persons who enter the profession of teaching are so filled with the subjects to be taught, and the methods to be pursued, and their training has been so lacking in any near approach to child life, that they are entirely unfitted to meet this requirement. They are blind guides. They do not come near to any of their pupils because they do not get acquainted with them; and the pupils, in turn, look upon the teacher as a stranger, if not an intruder. It is not necessary to know everything about children at once. If the teacher is able to read one difficult case and deal with it tactfully and skilfully, the fact is recognized by all. The pupils know that as fast as practicable the teacher will understand them all, and will rate them what they are, and there springs up an attitude of expectancy and interest, a faith in the teacher's sagacity, and a readiness to meet him half way.

If the teacher has that attitude which leads him to seek an intimate acquaintance with each of his pupils, becoming somewhat better acquainted with his home life and the conditions under which he lives out of school, as well as his personal temperament and characteristics, he will acquire the power of discrimination. He will come to differentiate his pupils, and to recognize the vast difference which distinguishes the one from the other.

I will mention but one other phase of the natural

ability to which I have referred and we may term it natural dignity or self-poise. Teaching is a nerve-trying profession, and this nerve strain when shown by the teacher also affects the pupil. Many of us realize this fact as we think of our attempts to modulate our voice so that our tones will not be harsh and high pitched, and of our irritability on occasions, and of various other results of lack of poise. Then, too, we worry unduly about our work and fear the pupils will not come up to the desired standard. Again the lack of this personal dignity gives an opening to the pupil for misdemeanors that he would not think of under the teacher of a strong personality. And when these take the form of personal disrespect for the teacher, her efficiency in that class or school is about ended.

Thus far we have thought more of the mental characteristics with which the prospective efficient teacher should be endowed. Let us turn for a brief survey of the essential physical gifts. I will pass by all the incidental aids of good physique, for I think these aids are incidental and more or less temporary, and not to be relied upon in place of more essential characteristics. But I do believe that good health is an essential characteristic, the lack of which will weaken a teacher's work. Now I do not mean perfect health, although that is desirable, but a fairly good physical condition. Many a person of rather frail physique enjoys comparatively good health because of proper care. Such care of our health through proper exercise, diet and clothing and through the cultivation of regular habits is within reach of most of us. And the

teacher who fails to take the care necessary for maintaining herself or himself in a good working condition in so far fails of the highest efficiency.

One of our greatest dangers is failure to relax at proper times with the consequent result of loss of vigor for our work. My own experience has influenced me to the belief that we do not realize fully enough that all mental processes involve the destruction of cells which must be replaced in order to keep us in our best condition. The habit of clearing up our work vigorously and thoroughly and then completely dropping it will help much to give us time for exercise or other relaxation necessary to keep the human battery at its highest efficiency.

The efficient teacher is not satisfied to take up her profession without any knowledge of the working of the child mind and the best methods of presenting knowledge so as to be most readily assimilated. Training for the work of teaching is vital to success. Experience alone will not replace it. For experience tells us what to do only in cases that have occurred before, but the study of the child mind and the methods to be used puts us in the position of the specialist who diagnoses the case and prescribes the proper treatment. I do not under-value experience but I do appreciate its limitation. A teacher gets her experience whether she will or not, but training comes only by submitting ourselves to specialists and letting them lead us into places of wisdom which we could never discover as an incidental of active teaching. Let us listen to the following from Horne's *Psychological Principles of Education* (p 50): "The

training of the teacher consists essentially in the knowledge and the use of method. Having just indicated the superior importance of hereditary gifts, I shall not be misunderstood now if I have a good deal to say in defense of a rational method of instruction. This is one of the weakest spots in both our theory of education and our school practice. Every teacher should know and use a scientific method of instruction. And this for two reasons that those who inveigh most against method cannot gainsay. The first is, some method is unavoidable. In the last analysis, method is but the way of doing a thing, and all teachers, whether trained or not, have and must have some way of setting about their work. In this sense, to cast out method in teaching is to cast out teaching itself. The second reason is, since method of some kind is inevitable, we ought to use the best available. The teacher must not excuse his inertia in discovering right method by supposing there is no right method to discover. When you confess failure to yourself in your class room work, then is the time to re-examine your method."

But the efficient teacher is one who puts her whole self into the method she uses, thus preventing it from seeming artificial to the pupils, and by happy devices prevents method from becoming mechanical. Says White in his introduction to *School Management* (p 4): "The two most obstructive foes of needed progress in school training are artificialism in motive and mechanism in method."

We still find ourselves, even with all the recent advances in child study and methods, forced to

take the defensive when we refer to teaching as a profession. It has been too long the stepping stone for young men to other professions, and still is used as a convenient employment by young women before marriage. We are about out of the stage of being a preparatory occupation for other professions, and, I believe, we are soon to be, yes already are, upon the way of realizing that the profession of teaching and that of the home maker are of the same fundamental nature. The efficient teacher then will recognize the greatness of her profession and will be loyal to it. This means not only a love for the work, which would produce only the scientific type, but love for the children and faith in the power of education over their lives. To quote again from Dutton, (*Social Phases*, p 8.): "There are two attitudes which a teacher should assume toward his children in the school. First, that of discriminating considerateness, and second, that of faith and confidence.

"(Love) is the golden thread that joins together all those saving forces which operate in the home, in the school, and in the community to make the young better, truer, and happier.

"I am ready to predict that the education of the future is likely to be more highly charged with this quality than has been the case in the past. Christianity calls for it, the world needs it, and I trust that teachers everywhere are coming to see in it the very essence of their mission."

Such a loyalty to one's profession as is here described will be productive of enthusiasm and a

broad idea of education that is not hampered or discouraged by the apparent importance of present discouragements. It will also produce a loyalty and sense of partnership with superiors in the profession, so that much of the efficiency often lost through friction at this point will be saved.

Nothing seems to me more petty and destructive of efficiency in a school system than the feeling sometimes displayed by teachers of unwillingness to co-operate with their colleagues. Our true professional spirit will help us both to give advice and to take advice from them and prevent that carping criticism of the teacher just below us whose pupils may be found somewhat at sea on points taught by her. We shall take our classes as they come to us with a hearty appreciation of what has been done, and with no slurs upon previous teachers.

The law of all life seems to be that growth is necessary to mere existence, and that when growth stops, decay sets in, followed sooner or later by death. Teaching is no exception to this rule. The teacher's growth is in two directions, in scholarship and in teaching power. That great teacher, Arnold, said: "I hold that a man is fit to teach only so long as he himself is learning daily." It was he, too, who said to one expressing surprise that such an experienced teacher as he should read over his Livy lesson for the next day, that he wanted his pupils to drink out of a running brook rather than from a stagnant pool. The self-satisfied teacher is the bane of the profession. I will secure better results from the inexperienced and

untrained teacher who is unsatisfied with her present attainments than from the experienced and trained teacher who thinks the wisdom of teaching will die with her. To accomplish this growth reading and study is necessary. But this is not so difficult as it may seem at first sight. In fact, when done in connection with one's work, it reacts upon our teaching, bringing fresh material always to our work, and it also satisfies our legitimate desires to be to some extent master of some one thing at least. This need of growth in scholarship is well set forth in the report of the Massachusetts Board of Education for 1905. The great advance in knowledge needed to teach various subjects as compared with the knowledge needed to teach in the time of Horace Mann, for instance, is set forth. I quote only from the remarks in regard to geography, (p 96): "For geography the teacher must know geology. She can no longer be satisfied with knowing the place and height of a mountain; she must know the young mountain from the old ones and be able to describe the signs of advancing age. She must know to what sort of a convulsion the mill town owes its falls, and to what drowning catastrophe the seaport owes its harbor; she must be able to point out the glacial phenomena of her neighborhood and teach the children how to know whether the hill they coast on is an esker or only a drumlin. All this is required that a teacher may be qualified." But the teacher will be well repaid for her efforts by the increased interest of her class. For nothing makes one's teaching so fresh

and vigorous as when imparting new information in which one is interested. With the growth in scholarship must go the growth in the knowledge of the world's best literature, the heritage of all. Then, too, the efficient teacher keeps herself posted along professional lines. The application of psychology to pedagogy is becoming an important standard for the comparison of methods and devices. The information from the child study side of this becomes an important interpreter of right and wrong methods in teaching. And from her own experience interpreted in the light of this scientific knowledge of the child mind the teacher has abundant opportunities for growth in the power of teaching. This growth will contribute to enthusiasm and interest and will result in increased efficiency.

With the assumption of more and more activities formerly controlled by the home and church, the school is broadening its sphere of influence and consequently touching the life about it more fully. To do its best work it needs the co-operation and sympathy of every phase of social life in the community. Those who stand as the representatives of the working forces of the school must be able and willing to do their part in the social life about them if they wish its co-operation. Dr. Albion W. Small has said, "Sociology demands of educators finally that they shall not rate themselves as leaders of children, but as makers of society. The teacher who realizes his social function will not be satisfied with passing children from one grade to another, but

will read his success only in the record of men and women who go from the school eager to explore wider and deeper those social relations, and zealous to do their part in making a better future." Nothing is more unsatisfactory to those who appreciate the value of the teacher as a possible asset in the social life of a community than the teacher who does the strictly professional side of his duties fairly well but fails to connect his work with that of the other forces in the community. I have already quoted several times from one book, (*Social Phases of Education*), that emphasizes this side of school life. Many more of the recent books upon school life treat of this more or less fully. One of these, "The School and Its Life," by Gilbert, emphasizes this subject. I quote from several places to show this emphasis. "School life is to be judged and its office regulated not as apart from the wider life but as a part of it." (Preface). "Only such a school can serve the real end of education, which is social efficiency in each individual member of the community." (p 8).

"I cannot refrain from repeating, education is to develop social efficiency in individuals." (p 22).

These quotations show you the emphasis that is placed upon the social relations of the school externally and internally. Example is better than precept, and is especially necessary in teaching the right expression of activities. A proper participation by the teacher in the best social measures of a community are therefore necessary to the efficient training of pupils in this line.

The last characteristic that I will touch upon is the moral side of the teacher. And I would be satisfied with my small part in this meeting could I know that this one point only would become a little more important in some of our schools. For, given a teacher with high moral qualities, and he or she will conscientiously strive for the improvement of those other qualities necessary to efficiency.

I doubt not your approval of the assumption that a teacher may possess all the qualities of scholarship and training, but unless the confidence of the child is secured, little progress will be made, even in scholastic subjects. Now we move before our children for just what we are, and, although they may be unconscious of the reason, they will be repelled or attracted as a compass needle by the different poles of the magnet. A high degree of moral excellence will win the confidence of the average child. And when this confidence is given to us efficient work may be done in the studies taught.

Moral honesty assumes the qualities that we have spoken of, for a teacher who tries to teach what she does not know, or who attempts to ignorantly prescribe for the child mind without knowing the effect of her treatment, is not morally honest. Only they who are striving to remedy the weak places in their equipment may attain to this honor. The cultivation of a love for the children and a sympathy in their work will prevent the harshness and sarcasm that are the goads of the teacher who drives instead of leads.

I, myself, have seen the past year a teacher of

the driving kind succeeded by one of kindly manner and genuine sympathy, and the result upon the children, who came from homes where harshness and coarseness were too plentiful, was plainly evident in neatness of person, courtesy to each other, and an affection for the teacher shown by bringing her flowers and by other little acts of courtesy. But the highest form of efficient moral influence will come in the formation of the moral character of our pupils. And I will not admit that a teacher is fully efficient until this real aim of education is achieved, or, at least, the teacher's share in the possible result is given. And the teacher who has done her work honestly and has carried the right spirit into her work has more effectively influenced the outcome for good character than the mere precept giver.

Let my thought on this subject be expressed by the facile pen of Dr. Horne, (*Psychological Principles of Education*, p 32): "The teacher is the life sharer, the educational process at bottom is the sharing of life. He is my teacher, whoever he be, who, maturer than I, shares my life. With his relatively mature life the teacher enters into and takes upon himself the lives of his pupils that they may become one with him. However mature he may be, the teacher must see to it that he have teachers of his own; those poets, priests, and prophets of the race in whose light he sees light and from whose life his own life is quickened. Teaching at bottom is the art of stimulating the growth of the soul; no less conception of it is quite true or worthy. Immature pupils of capacity, widening their lives

by each of many teachers' lives, become individually greater than any one of their teachers. Thus the human coefficient is multiplied with the passage of the generations. Thus the race itself is incorporating more and more of the divine experience through being taught of its great ones, themselves taught of God. The man or woman that accepts in spirit and in truth the office of teacher as the sharing of life comes into the keeping of the secrets of the Most High."

In conclusion let me say a word to those who may feel that I insist so strongly upon native gifts that I discourage the conscientious but rather mediocre teacher. I am confident that those of us who have a strong interest in the work of teaching have within us also the seeds of those native abilities necessary to make it a success. By faithful cultivation of these qualities we will be surprised to see their strong and flourishing growth with the consequent increase of our efficiency.

MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS IN PROVIDENCE.

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It is with much trepidation that a mere health officer ventures to address such a distinguished gathering of educators as I see before me. It is

certainly a great loss that Mr. Small could not be here and talk about this subject from the standpoint of the school official. He could tell you far better than I, and from a less biased standpoint, of the successes and failures of this kind of supervision.

The medical inspection of schools was first put into practice in this country in the city of Boston in 1894. It was suggested, and the service was organized and put in practice by Dr. Durgin, the well known and successful health officer of that city. The plan worked so well in Boston and met such hearty approval from the teachers, the parents, and also from the medical profession, that it at once attracted the attention of health officers and school officials throughout the country. Many other large cities in the United States undertook the medical supervision of their schools along the lines laid down in Boston. Smaller cities also followed in their wake, and in 1906 Massachusetts made such inspection compulsory throughout the state. The success obtained in Boston led to a renewed discussion of the subject in England, and our English friends are now very generally putting into practice this sort of school supervision. Most of our large cities have developed a quite elaborate system. They have a large number of medical men appointed as school inspectors, sometimes two or three hundred. School nurses have also been appointed to follow the children to their homes, and to see that they receive proper treatment. Even special clinics and hospitals have been established in some instances. It

is perhaps not wise on this occasion to present an elaborate discussion of the subject, or to go into the details of the work as it is carried on in the great cities. Most of our large cities are now well provided for, and I presume that you would be more interested in what is done, or what can be done in the smaller communities. We have not in Providence attempted any such elaborate scheme of inspection as is in force in Boston, or New York. In fact, we have only made a very modest attempt at freeing the schools from certain contagious diseases, and relieving the pupils from certain physical hinderances to their school work. As it is to be feared that there are many other communities in our fair land that have not as much money as they would like to spend, it may be interesting to know what we have done in Providence with a very small appropriation.

From the time when Dr. Durgin organized this work in Boston I had hoped to attempt something of the sort in Providence, but one unforeseen expense after another used up the funds at the disposal of the health department, so that the opportune time never seemed to come. The demand for school inspection in my city really came from the schools, and not from the health department. Teachers were continually calling upon the health officer for advice, and asking him to visit the schools to investigate cases of suspected contagious sickness, or of infection by various parasites, or to give expert opinion as to the physical condition of certain children. The health officer had not the time to per-

sonally accede to all these requests, and furthermore he is far from being an expert in all departments of medicine. Many of our teachers had heard of what was being done in Boston, and were very desirous of having a similar system established in our own city. At last, in 1894, the teachers and parents of the pupils in one of our large grammar schools subscribed a sum of money, and hired a physician to act as school physician for one month. They were very much gratified with the results obtained. This gave me the opportunity to ask for a special appropriation to start an inspection service for all the city schools. If such a service was important enough for the parents and friends to put their hands in their own pockets to pay for it, it was certainly important enough for the city to undertake. No more effective argument could be made to a council in advocacy of school inspection than that the parents of children were willing to pay for it themselves. We began with an appropriation of \$1,000.00, which was certainly very small for a city of 175,000 inhabitants, the population of Providence at that time. Two inspectors were appointed who were to give their mornings to the work. One of these physicians was a woman, and I would say that I consider women physicians eminently adapted for the examination of children and for dealing with teachers, and parents.

In most cities, as you know, the plan is for an inspector to visit each school each morning. For that reason a large number of inspectors have to be employed. It was manifestly impossible for

the two inspectors in Providence to visit the one hundred schools except at considerable intervals. Even when the inspector visits the school each day he does not examine all the children. For his routine work he only examines those that the teachers pick out as probably needing medical attendance. Thus even with a system of daily inspection the primary responsibility for selecting children for examination falls on the teacher. The essential difference between school inspection in Providence and in other cities, is that in Providence the children to a large extent come to the inspector; while in other cities the inspector goes to the children. The way in which inspection is carried on in Providence is somewhat as follows:

First, it frequently comes to the knowledge of teachers that children in the school have suspicious eruptions on the skin, sores or ulcers, discharges from the ears, difficulty with vision or hearing, or other bodily ailments or abnormalities which, however, do not to any extent affect the general health of the child. Such children are perfectly able to go to a physician, and if the physician is furnished by the city there seems to be no good reason why they should not be willing to do so. On every school day in the year one of our school inspectors is on duty at the City Hall, between twelve and one o'clock. When the teacher finds a child which she thinks needs medical treatment, or concerning which she wishes advice, she gives to the child a note to the school inspector, stating what she suspects the trouble is, and sends the child to the City

Hall. The child is then examined by the medical inspector and is given a report of the findings, which it carries to the teacher, and a duplicate report is kept on file in the office. The teacher is then expected to see that the child's parents are notified, and if any treatment is necessary to see that it is carried out.

Second, all cases of scarlet fever, diphtheria or other of the more important contagious diseases which come to the notice of the health department, are of course immediately reported to the schools where the children of the family attend. But it occasionally happens that teachers find children suffering from what they suspect is one of these diseases, or hear rumors of unreported cases in the neighborhood. If a suspected child is found in school it is at once sent home, and all such, and all rumored cases, are immediately reported by the teacher to the health department, and the school inspector is at once sent to make an examination. The plan is that dangerous cases shall be at once sent home, but the majority of the children who need the attention of the inspectors are not usually urgent cases, and may be allowed to remain in school until they go to the City Hall for examination, or until the inspector visits the school. Experience has shown that the teachers exercise excellent judgment as to what cases should require immediate exclusion.

Third, it, of course, greatly economizes the work of the inspectors to have as many as possible of the cases requiring inspection sent to the City Hall, but there are occasions when it is impossible

to do this, because the child is too young to go alone, or because the parents are not interested, or for other reasons. If the case is such that the teacher thinks no harm would result from its remaining in school for a day or two, a request may be sent to have the inspector call at the school, when, as sometimes happens, there are several suspicious cases in a school, a visit to the school should be requested. As a matter of fact, such requests are made every day or two from one or more schools.

Fourth, the inspectors when not making special calls at the schools, or visiting the children at their homes, are supposed to visit the schools in routine, confer with the teachers on all matters relating to the hygiene of the school, and examine all children who may need attention. In this way each school is visited about once in four to six weeks.

Of course, if we had more inspectors they could accomplish a great deal more work, but nevertheless our small force has done a vast amount of good, which I believe is fully appreciated by the teachers. I feel sure that they would regret exceedingly to have the inspections discontinued. During the year 1906-7 about 3,200 children were found to be suffering from some affection worthy of attention. This is exclusive of cases of pediculosis. It is interesting to note that in Boston, with about three times the school population of Providence, the large corp of inspectors employed in that city discovered only about 10,000 cases requiring attention, exclusive of pediculosis and vaccina-

tions. For the benefit of those who are not familiar with school inspections it will be of interest to know that of the 3,200 children requiring attention, 930 had some trouble with the eyes, and 319 of these were found to need glasses, 94 of the children had some difficulty with the sense of hearing, 180 had enlarged tonsils, 97 had adenoids, a large proportion of which required an operation. There were 43 cases of itch, and 36 of ring-worm, and nearly 250 children had supurating sores, due chiefly to lack of cleanliness. Only 37 cases of infectious disease were found, of which 3 were diphtheria, and 9 were scarlet fever. Besides the above, about 350 cases of pediculosis received the attention of the inspectors. Our inspectors have always devoted a good deal of attention to backward children. We have special schools for such in Providence and school inspection has done much to improve the physical condition of the children, resulting indirectly in many cases in notable mental improvement. The condition of children living in tuberculous families has also been a subject for investigation, and a number of such have been induced to attend fresh air camps during the summer, and to become members of our newly established fresh air school during the winter.

It will be seen that in school inspection as carried on in Providence, and indeed in most cities, the teacher as well as the physician plays the part of inspector. The teacher picks out those children whom she thinks may have some contagious disease, or are infected with parasites, or have some infectious skin disease, or trouble with the eyes or

ears, and refers them to the physician for further examination. The inspectors simply furnish the convenient authority to which the teachers may apply. Repeated conferences with the inspectors do much to educate the teachers and to lead them to work in harmony with the physicians. We have not as yet issued any formal instructions to teachers, but I think it would be well to do so. The very excellent "Suggestions," issued by the Massachusetts Board of Education, might well be adopted for use in other states and cities. Test cards to enable the teachers to roughly determine the condition of the eye-sight have been placed in all the schools, and the teachers have been shown how to use them.

The medical inspection of schools was originally undertaken to check the spread of such diseases as scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, etc. It was hoped that a large number of incipient and mild unrecognized cases of these diseases would be found by the school inspectors on their daily round. These expectations have not been fulfilled. If the reports of the inspectors in different cities are examined it will be found that comparatively few of these cases are discovered, and most of them probably would have been discovered by the teachers, or the health officer, even if there had been no formal inspection service. Indeed it is not probable that many cases of such diseases as scarlet fever and diphtheria are to be found in the schools. Personally I do not believe that the schools are a very important factor in the spread of these diseases. Intimate personal association resulting in the trans-

ference of secretions, is much less likely to obtain in school than out. Even if unrecognized, and perfectly well, carriers of disease germs do attend school, they are not nearly as likely to spread disease there as they are when playing in the streets or in their own back yards. So far as the restriction of scarlet fever and diphtheria is concerned, the medical inspection of school has accomplished little. But it is amply justified on other grounds. School inspection gives assistance and advice to the teacher, helps the children with poor eye-sight, or defective hearing, shows what should be done for adenoids and enlarged tonsils and trachoma; gets rid of unsightly skin diseases; cures and prevents the spread of scabies and ring-worm, and helps to free the children from unpleasant parasites.

When we began our work in Providence the first trouble we had was with defective eye-sight. Neither of our two general inspectors is an oculist and it was found that the parents of children would not consult a specialist for advice. The children of the really poor could be sent to a hospital, but wage earners of moderate means, not realizing the importance of attending to their children's eyes, would refuse to pay for suitable advice, and, of course, would be refused treatment at the hospital, on the ground that they were not really needy. Hence we soon found it necessary to employ an oculist of our own; a public spirited physician who has done a large amount of work for the very moderate compensation of \$500.00 per annum. All children whom the other inspectors think need expert advice, are sent to the oculist with a letter, and

he later reports to the health department the conditions found. The teachers are then notified and are supposed to follow up the cases. We then had difficulty in getting the parents to purchase glasses, which are sometimes quite expensive. An arrangement was made with a leading optician to furnish glasses at a considerable discount, but even then a certain number of people were unable to pay for them. Contributions from local clubs and societies have provided for them in such cases. The teachers generally have taken the greatest interest in seeing that the children receive the treatment advised by the inspectors, often visiting the parents, or taking the children to the hospital, or to a physician. Our director of physical culture has also done a good deal of work in urging parents to action, and the inspectors themselves have taken much time outside their regular hours for similar missionary work.

Another hinderance to successful school inspection is the inability of a considerable proportion of the practising physicians to properly treat the children that are sent to them by the school inspectors. Before we employed our oculist we were greatly annoyed by parents consulting cheap and incompetent physicians or mere opticians. We have found that the average family physician in the majority of instances cannot cure scabies, and frequently makes slow progress with ring-worm. We send most of our cases of scabies to the hospital, and the school inspectors treat the ring-worm, the city furnishing the necessary ointment. Medicines are also furnished for one or two other common affec-

tions, and petroleum is supplied for getting rid of head lice. We purchase crude petroleum by the barrel, and one of the men in the office puts it up in half pint bottles. The teachers take great interest in this form of parasitism, and will frequently inspect all their pupils, and then send to the health department for the number of bottles of petroleum desired. This free treatment, as indeed medical inspection itself, is a form of medical socialism, but the writer sees nothing to fear in that word, neither does he believe that this inspection and treatment tends in any way towards pauperization. In any event, it is not nearly as objectionable as our free text-books.

Medical inspection, as does much health department work, causes considerable friction with the medical profession. The shortcomings of the profession have been referred to, and it is but natural that they should resent any criticism of the same, either direct, or implied, coming from public officials. The family physician particularly, resents having any of his patients advised to consult a specialist, yet if we expect to have defects remedied that must be done. Again, mistakes in diagnosis on the part of the inspectors must occasionally be expected, as no one person can be an expert in every branch of medical practice, and even experts have been known to err. It is readily seen that such errors may be the cause of decided friction between parents, the family physician, and the school inspector. Yet on the whole inspection has worked decidedly well, and with surprisingly lit-

tle friction, and I believe that a large amount of good has been accomplished.

We would like to extend our work. Quite a number of cities have added the trained nurse to their service. She visits the children in their homes and shows them, as well as tells them, how to get rid of lice, how to cure ring-worm and scabies, and how to heal open sores and discharging ears. I have questioned whether it would not be well to employ such a nurse in Providence, but I am inclined to think that it would be better to have another medical inspector. The nutrition of school children is now receiving considerable attention, and also their general physical development. Some municipal and state laws require the thorough examination of every child once a year. How thoroughly that is carried out I do not know. If it is done well, it must require a large number of skilled physicians. It seems to me that even if all the children are not subjected to such a thorough examination at least the more feeble, poorly nourished, and backward children should be, and for this purpose I would like to see our force increased. Our inspectors are much impressed by the poor condition of the teeth of school children, and the utter lack of the parents' interest in this important matter. It seems as though something ought to be done to prevent this reckless disregard of this portion of the child's anatomy. Yet it is difficult to see how anything can be accomplished except by the employment of municipal dentists. These are employed quite generally in Germany, and to

some extent in England, but I am afraid that our people would not take kindly to such a socialistic movement.

In conclusion, I would say that I believe that school inspection is a good thing, and that it is possible to accomplish a great deal with a very small expenditure of money. Even the smallest communities should provide for such inspection, though in many instances it may be difficult to obtain the advice of specialists which is so often needed. I am firmly convinced that school inspection is properly a function of the health department, rather than of the department of education. There is no reason why the two departments should not always work together in entire harmony, as they have done in Providence. The health department is a clearing house for contagious diseases, and hence can keep its inspectors closely informed in regard to all cases of such disease. Most important of all, the health officer has a knowledge of medicine, and of physicians. He knows who are good physicians and who are not. One of the greatest difficulties in the way of carrying on medical inspection with a large number of inspectors, as is done in many cities, is the impossibility of finding a sufficient number of physicians qualified for the work. A school inspector ought to be a man, or woman, who is an expert in several lines, and if this is too much to expect, we should at least demand that he be thoroughly educated in modern medicine, and with considerable experience in hospital and clinic work.

THE TRAINING OF CHILDREN IN CIVIC IDEALS.

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What Jane Addams calls "the admitted failure in municipal administration, the so-called 'shame of American cities'," might well cause every one of us to bow his head in humiliation and despondency, were it not for the bitter cry of the children pricking our courage awake. "Are you going to allow us to stultify ourselves with your blustering pseudo patriotism, and repeat again in our generation, the mistakes that have made you a derision among the nations, and the partakers of a common disgrace?"

In attempting to present to you this morning, a plan for the training of children in civic ideals, I shall take for my principle of action the words of the saintly James Martineau concerning the chief end of education, "To teach the child what to love and what to hate, whom to honor and whom to despise." If as Mr. Vanderlip has taught us England's educational problem is to fit her people for commercial supremacy, Germany's for military economy, and France's for a public civil service, it is America's high duty to fit for superb citizenship. Other nations may desire this, America must. She is engaged in an enterprise so hazardous as may well make her wisest tremble. Her failure will mean a blow for our common humanity whose anguish will be felt wherever suffering

men and women, in black darkness treading the wine press of pain, under the cruelty and oppression of tyranny, have refused to give up the heaven-sent hope of the coming light which, first kindled by the young republic, shall at last lighten the pathway of every man that cometh into the world.

And how are we to teach the little children of our elementary schools this high and holy wisdom? Believe me, the way lies close to each one of us. It will be accomplished when we have succeeded in teaching every child in our schools that there is no distinction between personal honesty and corporate honesty, that there is no difference between personal honor and municipal honor. We shall teach him that he must "give," must "serve" instead of "get" and "rule." He will learn the supreme beauty of those words, "The best shall serve the state."

I could remind you of how we have relied in the past upon the formal teaching of facts about government, expecting these facts in some magical fashion to transform anyone into a responsible citizen. We taught the divisions of government, and the powers of each as early as the 4th or 5th grade. We taught the qualifications of members of congress, and how the electoral college was conducted. We taught what the qualifications for presidents, and governors, and mayors were, with all the obsolete provisions. We taught about vetoes and impeachments; and although this useful information was well taught, for nearly two generations, we have not yet reason to be proud of the results when

our pupils have gone forth to the task of citizenship.

But if the formal teaching of facts about government have failed to give our children high ideals of a citizen's noble calling, close at hand lie the materials to awaken his understanding, and kindle his enthusiasm. Surely the study of the history of our land offers opportunity for each of us that the very angels of light might envy.

How magnificent is the moral force of that lesson, as a man soweth so shall he also reap, and it is to the nation as to the man. Not one page in history, be it foul with leering evil, or fair with saintly blessing, but may render up its splendid lesson to him who searches for it. When your children have studied the noble dignity of the protest against tyranny and oppression, and compare it with the horrors of the French Revolution in the conduct of our Revolution, they will soon find that the difference lay not in the human nature of the two nations, but in the leaders of each. Compare George Washington, John and Samuel Adams, John Hancock and Benjamin Franklin in their calm integrity and whole-souled devotion to the principles of law and order, with such self-servers and glory-seekers as Marat, Robespierre, Danton and Bonaparte. Then our pupils learn without any preaching by us, that character, and character alone, is the ultimate test of fitness for power.

Our great literature is full of material for awakening high civic ideals. If you have never tried it, I recommend to you the reading of Dr. Hale's story of "The Man Without a Country," as a memorial

day exercise. I know one school where every grammar school child hears that story every year as regularly as the day comes around. There are plenty of wet faces among big and little alike, and the influence is as apparent throughout the year as the clock upon the school room walls. The appeal increases as every year goes by.

But having awakened the ideal of citizenship through the splendid pages of history and literature, how shall we embody them in the daily life of the school? It is my purpose in this paper to describe one method of incorporating these principles through the so-called "Good Citizens' Club" of the Pierce school of Brookline.

I must say at the outset that our Good Citizens' Club is in no way an application of the school city idea. As I have observed, the self-governing plans for school children they have seemed to me too often to mean to the child, "This is my chance to boss the others." I cannot believe that any gain toward real citizenship is made by pretending to let the children rule themselves, when all the time the real authority is where it always is, and always has been. It is my sincere belief that the American child of every class of society is much more in need of plenty of good practice and training in simple, quiet obedience to, and respect for, law and order, than he is in need of practice in ruling the school community. Our children have abundant exercise in every good American home of managing the whole household, with the curious position of the latest arrival having the most unlimited control. If John Fiske is right when he teaches us

that mankind has attained supremacy over the rest of creation through the period of prolonged infancy, let us go slowly in pushing down upon the helpless years, tasks and responsibilities that belong to maturity and development. I am often told that the children like the self-governing plans. I can well believe it, and do not doubt my informants who tell me how attractive the police department is to the bad boys who succeed to that office. From my own experience I know hardly a boy who would not prefer the 4th of July fun of firing off the biggest cannon in the Charlestown navy yard, to his own bunch of firecrackers. Nevertheless we have not yet turned over our warships to the little ones' delighted management. When I listen to the statements of how well the schools are run when managed by these precocious darlings, I feel myself in the position of the Irishman who was greatly enjoying his ride, one morning, on his employer's fine saddle horse. By some mischance the horse's foot was entangled in his rider's stirrup. Pat's pleasure was sadly marred and he remonstrated feelingly, "Bedad, if you are going to ride, I'll get off."

Our Good Citizens' Club has for its object the direct rendering of service to the community. Our children have so much done for them now that they are in danger of forgetting that any return is expected from them. They obtain every school necessity, and many school luxuries for the mere putting forth of the hand. Is it any wonder that the open hand is in frequent evidence in the wrong place? Their intellectual wants are supplied by

teachers only too eager to pour in. The books, paints, athletic supplies of all kinds are supplied by a school board generously interpreting the liberal spirit of the community. Our manual training boys adorn their homes with the tables and book-cases whose materials are furnished gratis, our girls fare sumptuously after the cooking lessons on the cake and ice cream they have made there. Janitors patiently sweep, and dust, and tidy up for every child; street cleaners bend for hours daily over the papers carelessly littering the neighborhood; and yet we wonder that our city governments are so regardless of public money. After such a sowing what else can we reap? I tell you from the depths of my heart, my friends, after experiencing the free text-book law for a quarter of a century, I feel that unless we arouse ourselves sharply to our responsibility in stemming this current set against us, we are in danger of establishing a nursery of graft right in the common schools, the very high altar of our liberty.

Our Good Citizens' Club was established two years ago for the purpose of arousing children to the ideal of service in return in a slight measure for all that is done for them. Because the untidy condition of the streets cried out most loudly against us we started there. Two weeks before the beginning of school, I had alighted from a tram on that most glorious of all streets, Princes in Edinburgh. The day was hot, in woman's customary pocketless condition, my hands were full with sunshade, pocketbook and Trossach's tour tickets, and I was further burdened by a scrap of a card indicat-

ing that I had paid my tram fare of "tuppence." And now this is the miracle! So exquisitely clean was the glorious highway over which the old castle loomed at one end and the gracious monument of the "last minstrel" at the other, that I was sadly embarrassed by the problem what to do with that scrap of paper. I looked up and down the street, and I would no more have dared to throw that paper on that fleckless pavement than I should dare to throw a banana skin on your dining room floor. I finally rid myself of it by tucking it between the bars of a grated culvert with my sunshade.

On arriving back in Boston I was dismayed beyond measure at the unabashed slovenliness of her chief beauty spot. In Copley Square, in the early morning of my arrival, a full sized newspaper would not have felt conspicuously out of place. For the first time in my life I saw the streets about my own school, and then and there I resolved that this condition of things should be bettered.

Calling together our thirteen grammar school teachers we planned the campaign. We should form ourselves into a club having four members from each class-room, who should be especially chosen by the others. Each grade should have its own route or section of the neighborhood streets and sidewalks to keep free from rubbish of all kinds. As our school is in the business center of the town, and adjoining the public library, police station and town hall, and as all these are on public grounds, here was a splendid chance to learn what our neighbors spend their lives in doing for us, and render our slight service

in return. We offered no rewards or emoluments. Only the best boys were candidates for membership, that is, boys with clean records for manliness in the grades they had already passed through. We also debarred any boy from membership who had a court record. Our "Good Citizens" took to the title at once, and we had a little button made with the name of the club encircling the flag of our country.

We were saved from disaster at the outset by taking one sensible precaution and by a fortunate happening. By putting ourselves in the place of the mothers we realized their abhorrence at having their cleanly arrayed children handling the rubbish of the streets. This was obviated by having each child make for himself, out of a broomstick, a collecting stick, by filing off the head of a wire nail, fastening it into the end, and sharpening it down, so that papers, bits of orange skin, and other litter could be skillfully collected by prodding. I need not tell you how popular these sticks became, since they were limited strictly to the fifty odd Good Citizens, nor how many eager assistants sprang into existence, for you have all read Tom Sawyer.

Our fortunate happening was this: On the very week that the Good Citizens' Club was launched, a mothers' meeting was called at the school. This of course had for its object the forestalling of any home criticism. So much interest had been taken in the matter, however, that a big Boston newspaper had sent out an interviewer and an artist. The interviewer was speedily disposed of, but the

artist had a most cordial reception. Big citizens and little citizens equipped in unapproachable dignity, and armed conspicuously with collecting sticks, made a splendid showing. The president was there, so was the little lad who collected 2,000 pieces of paper the first week. Need I tell you of the pride and happiness of those mothers as they read with approval the kind words of appreciation for their children's efforts? Need I tell you that every paper of that issue coming to Brookline was sold in an hour that day? Need I tell you that the first complaint is yet to be heard?

But we are training girls to be good citizens as well as boys. Does equal opportunity mean identical experience for all? Is not this the rock upon which many a little craft launched in a good cause has foundered? I cannot believe that street service belongs to the girls. I think that good citizens are needed as much in the house as out of it and so when the pressure came to let the girls become Good Citizens, we found the right service for them inside.

I hope that I am not hurting the feelings of any of my courteous men auditors when I say that the man never lived who could sweep, and dust, and set in order a room to suit a woman. If he can do it, he isn't a janitor. After the ordinary janitor's work has been finished there is still much dusting to be done with damp cheesecloth, both in the interest of prevention of contagion in our close school rooms, and in the interest of beautiful cleanliness. I need only to remind you of Prof. Hodge's fine chapter on the subject in his *Nature Study and Life*

from which I take his quotation from Ruskin, worthy to be illuminated in fine gold and hung on every school room wall.

"I myself have washed a flight of stone stairs all down, with bucket and broom, in a Savoy inn; where they hadn't washed their stairs since first they went up them and I never made a better sketch than that afternoon."

In addition to supplementing the cleaning of the room, there are the plants to be taken care of, the specimen drawings and color work to be mounted, illustrative material to be prepared and hung, library and reference books to be taken care of, and until the overworked teachers realize how many burdensome bits of work these Good Citizen girls can do well, they have not come to a realizing sense of how to save themselves for the best they can give.

But let no one imagine that by setting to work the machinery of organization, human nature is to be changed, and in the change miracles are to be wrought in the community life. In work with children we have all learned that while you can get a great deal of return for a little labor, you can never get something for nothing. Once having kindled their ardor for good service, it is most necessary to fan the flame, steadily and persistently. Some one said the other day that nagging is persistence in little things, but that persistence in great things is the grace of continuance. To keep our interest always alert, a brief meeting of all Good Citizens is held right after the opening exercises Friday morning. Once in a while the whole school is invited

to one of these meetings. The president calls the meeting to order, the secretary reads the minutes of the last meeting. The roll is called, and each member gives in response to his name the number of papers he has picked up. "H. B." (honor bright). A map of the district hangs in plain sight, made by the children, with each grade's route in a special color. The president appoints an observer from each grade to go over the route, and report its condition in general for the next meeting. Sometimes the teacher of each class is invited to report her opinion of her class's route in writing. An adverse report is a crying disgrace and seldom happens to the same class twice. After the reports are in, suggestions are called for, and this is the principal's opportunity. She is a sort of honorary director, and if there is ever a time when her slightest wish is law, it is then.

But the best suggestions always come from the Citizens themselves. No teacher would dare to impose the extra work they cheerfully take upon themselves. This is where we learn our dependence upon the various departments of the town—the Board of Health whose new laws are eagerly discussed at this time. For instance, the effect of the ruling about spitting, permitted in the street but not on sidewalks. What extra caution does that devolve upon collectors in the streets? When the rubbish barrels are found to be too few how shall we get more? If the rubbish barrels now in service are left unemptied by the town laborers what can be done about it? In response to the little president's appeal to the superintendent of

streets came this letter, which gave our Good Citizens not only an added self-respect, and immense admiration for the business-like methods of our street department, but a realization of their ability to appreciate a good thing when they saw it.

President Good Citizens' Club,

Dear Sir:—Your letter of the 12th inst. received yesterday. I will see if I cannot arrange to have the rubbish barrels in the vicinity of the Pierce school given better attention by our man who empties them. I have to-day sent a team to the factory where we buy these barrels to get twenty-four new ones, and as soon as they are painted and properly lettered, we shall place them where we find they are most needed.

We are very much pleased with the improvement in the appearance of the section of the town in the vicinity of the Pierce school, and are very glad to have your co-operation in this matter.

Yours truly,

Assistant Superintendent of Streets.

Our Good Citizens are elected twice a year, and they elect their officers for the same periods. Our classes contain about twenty-one boys and twenty-one girls each. As no child is a candidate for re-election within three years, and eight boys and four girls are elected annually, you can see that every child has at least three opportunities to serve as a Good Citizen in his grammar school course. At the end of the year all boys and girls who have

served during the year unite in the pleasure of an ice cream party. They make the ice cream at school, bring the cake from home, and furnish songs, recitations and music from volunteers among themselves. One of the pleasantest things in my experience, is the desire of all the other children to do something for the Good Citizens' pleasure at their party. The other children who are not to share the ice cream nor hear the music, decorate the hall, press loaves of cake, and boxes of fudge upon us, until last month so many loaves of cake were left over that we had to call in outside help to distribute it among the homes of the needy.

But street cleaning is only the beginning of the manifested spirit of good citizenship. Valuable as it is, it is merely suggestive and a starting point. With the idea once established that he must give something of himself for what he gets, the possibilities of growth in the serviceable spirit are manifold. Since to be a good citizen means to do something for the community, we have found that our school gardens are managed in the same spirit. Every child is eager to plant something that the school can use, and to-day shining rows of calendulas, zinnias and petunias are being carefully tended for the sake of the fall nature work and color lessons. No longer the manual training classes seek to do the things for themselves alone, but ask to make those articles which the school can use. The primary school play-room rejoices in a fine Indian tepee that would rejoice Mr. Thompson-Seton himself. From the spirited warriors on sturdy ponies, fighting the rearing buffaloes painted

on its sides, every inch of it was made by the older boys out of school hours, who spent weeks on its construction. I will not try to enumerate the play house, big enough for live children to play in, and the beautiful mission furniture it is filled with, nor the window boxes made for the whole town by the hundred, nor the shelves, nor bulletin boards, nor the foot rests for the little children, nor the other hundred and one means of expressing the good citizen spirit for the school.

My plan is in the near future, to supplement all this constructive work with repair work of all kinds. It seems to me that the splendid work done by the Lincoln school at Santa Barbara, as described in the *World's Work* for April, might well be inaugurated in every school in the land. Here they learn to bind all the books worn out, to cane all the chairs needing repair, in fact to mend everything that requires mending at home or at school, whether of paper, or cloth, or wood, or leather, or tin, or crockery. This is where the great waste comes in our American life. Not one home in a thousand knows how to make its own repairs. Book covering will occur to you all, I am sure, as the first step toward preventing waste.

Will not this kind of training offered as an essential in good citizenship give our children the right attitude and respect for a sympathy and respect for those who toil which they now lack so sadly? Do you realize how true this is, that it is not what the school does for the child but what the child does for the school that makes him love it with an undying loyalty. Just stop loading that

bad boy of yours with favors that he doesn't deserve and give him a good heavy piece of work to do for you or his school, the heavier and dirtier the better. Let him feel for once that you are his debtor and he will begin to treat you quite civilly, nay, even generously.

The loyalty to the Good Citizens' Club, even by boys and girls not yet elected to membership in it, I have already alluded to. The most interesting instance was that of a little girl belonging to an unfortunate family. When the head of it elected to move to California, every teacher having anything to do with the children breathed a sigh of regret. In their brief sojourn among us we felt that we had accomplished a little for them, considering all they needed to have done. But soon afterward a letter came from the little twelve-year-old girl, that we keep in our archives as a constant encouragement to the despondent. Here is a part of that brave little soul's appreciation. After describing the deplorable condition of the old shack fitted up for a school after the San Francisco fire, and the nice yard the boys laid of the bricks that had made hills and valleys of their play ground, she says:

"The children of the Pierce school ought to appreciate the school they have and do all they can to keep it nice. I have been nearly all over San Francisco and have never seen a school half as good as this. I will never forget the Pierce school and would very much like to have a postal card of it. I did not fail to tell the children of the —— school the work the Good Citizens do for the streets of Brookline, I did not fail to tell them of

the lovely school you have got and how proud the children all are of it."

One thing which we have insisted upon from the first is that Good Citizens cannot be model pupils in school and hoodlums and vandals out of it. You all know how the weaklings in character get led into trouble by the big masterful spirits outside. Our Good Citizens' Club gives us a natural opportunity to discuss the moral significance of public conduct, and men who are best equipped for the work come to the school to tell the Good Citizens what the world expects of boys and girls. At these talks the whole school is invited by the Good Citizens and I assure you that the moral effect is tremendous. This winter we invited the clerk of one of Boston's municipal courts who has intelligently studied the development of the hoodlum for thirty-three years. This gentleman's talk had a telling effect as he enumerated the various downward steps in the beginning of degeneracy. First, admiration for and imitation of the tough; second, cigarettes; third, hanging about the streets evenings. Mothers and teachers might have talked themselves dumb, but the man who is in the sad business of watching the swift downfall of scores won the last boy of them.

And now I have but one other means of training in civil ideals to present, and that is a discussion of the work of the Civil Service Reform league as carried on by the Women's Auxiliary. This body has awakened a splendid enthusiasm for the merit system as opposed to the spoils system by their intelligent interest in and co-operation with

the teachers of the older children of our schools. It is during our 8th year at school that the children study the spoils system of Jackson's administration. By means of supplementary literature upon this subject the children are helped to understand the problem at the time when they most appreciate its benefit to them. An essay on the merit system forms part of the regular training in English at this time, and judges selected from the league decide upon their relative merits and award a beautiful bronze medal, designed by St. Gaudens, and forming the choicest possession of the child who wins it. This yearly contest does more than arouse a mere passing enthusiasm. Many of the children who have to leave school work hard to pass the civil service examinations and sometimes enter the civil service themselves. For a boy who must go to work the progressive grades in the civil service help to keep his scholarly ambition awake, and lead him to continue to cultivate his mind for his own self interest. But far better than medals, or civil service positions, these splendid earnest women deserve the greatest credit for helping to spread an intelligent appreciation of the sober truths which underlie this great movement whose high motto is, "The best shall serve the state."

I have spoken of the civic ideals that it should be our high privilege to inculcate in the lives of the children committed to our care. I have tried to show the fallacy of relying upon a body of the facts concerning government to awaken a passion for civic righteousness. I have indicated those branches of the course of study, history and litera-

ture through whose content the highest appeals can be made. Time is not allowed me to speak of the valuable contributing help of music and the daily effect of the presence of the works of art that the ages have consecrated to the high task of awakening human aspiration. I have described a definite plan of training in useful service to the community through the Good Citizens' Club, and have tried to show its place in arousing a consciousness of what true citizenship demands of its aspirants. I have tried to point out a great service which may be rendered by all the women's clubs through the branch of the Civil Service Reform league. But I shall have failed completely in my own purpose if I have not made plain to you that the national conscience is the aggregate of all the personal consciences that make up its citizenship. There lies our task, the task for us fortunate ones who deal with the possibilities of childhood and youth.

"Who is the happy warrior? Who is he
That every man in arms should wish to be.
It is the generous spirit, who, when brought
Among the tasks of real life, have wrought
Upon the plan that pleased his boyish thought
Whose high endeavors are an inward light
That make the path before him always bright."

Therefore, my friends, think not that you are only teaching civics when you are making plain the provisions of the immortal Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation. I yield to no one in my admiration for that noble deed. But believe me, you

are laying the foundations of permanent power in the lives of your children when you have awakened their love and admiration for Lincoln, the awkward, unkempt youth, trudging weary miles when his long day's work was done to restore the few cents inadvertently taken from a customer whose very existence would long ago have been forgotten, but for the country clerk's desire to keep his private honor unspotted from the world.

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS AND TRANSPORTATION.

M. D. CHITTENDEN,
PRINCIPAL BURLINGTON HIGH SCHOOL,
BURLINGTON, VT.

In 1877, Mr. Hiram Bellows, a wealthy banker of St. Albans, Vt., left to Fairfax, his native town, Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific railroad bonds to the amount of \$25,000 for the purpose of establishing a free school. He directed that the board of trustees, having the money in charge, should keep it invested until the amount of \$250,000 had been reached, when they should set aside \$200,000 as a permanent endowment fund and should proceed to erect a suitable building and equip it at an expense not to exceed \$50,000.

In 1902, twenty-five years after the sum was left, the trustees sold the bonds and realized \$287,000. It would be difficult to duplicate this case. The increase in value of the bonds was marvelous.

Mr. Bellows in his will directed that elementary as well as secondary education should be offered. Since it was necessary by the terms of the testament to maintain a graded school, the problem of a permanent roll of pupils arose. Because of the better advantages afforded at the academy, it was inevitable that many parents in town would take their children from the district schools and put them in the academy grades. It was apparent also that in case of dissatisfaction because of discipline, the pupils would frequently be taken out and returned to the district schools. Such a condition as this would have been very detrimental to both systems. To avoid this contingency, it was decided to try the experiment of closing the country schools and of transporting all children to the academy. The authorities were thus led to school consolidation more as a matter of expediency than because of a desire to try the experiment.

In September, 1904, the school first opened its doors and two districts were transported. The distance traversed was five miles. In January, 1905, five more routes were established, thus uniting in one graded school system all the schools in town, with the exception of two which are six or seven miles from the central school.

Contrary to the custom prevailing in most places where school centralization is in operation, the school board decided to own its conveyances, thereby insuring comfortable and safe transportation for the children. This is not always the case when the driver provides his own vehicle. Barges were con-

structed with tight covers and heavy curtains so that the wind and cold could be shut out in the winter, and yet so that the curtains could be raised in the pleasant season. It is thought that it would be more economical in the long run if the town owned two sets of barges, one for summer, and the other on runners for winter use. This will probably be brought about in the near future. The town possesses now eight conveyances which will carry from twenty-five to thirty pupils each. Such barges as described above cost from \$225 to \$250. With proper care they will last for years.

The conditions at Fairfax for school consolidation are not ideal. The building should be centrally located, while Bellows Academy is situated very near the southern boundary of the town so that the transportation lines are necessarily long. Two centralized schools located one-third and two-thirds of the distance respectively from the northern boundary of the town would be a better arrangement.

Circumstances in Fairfax, owing to the existence of the endowment fund, are so different from those found in other rural communities that no fair comparisons as to expense can be made and no inferences can be drawn concerning the comparative cost of maintaining rural schools under the district system and of supporting a central school. The conditions along all other lines are the same as in any town where centralization may be tried and therefore safe conclusions may be drawn.

The district schools in Fairfax may be taken as fairly typical of the district school throughout New

England, no better, no worse. Each school-house consisted of one room, low, poorly ventilated and insufficiently lighted. Blackboard room was lacking; the walls were dingy and without adornment; the rough benches were cut and carved by those of earlier generations. No apparatus or little was afforded and the books and supplies were meagre. The teacher, good for the money paid her, was changed frequently, often every term. The pupils were put back with the advent of each new pedagogue and there was entire lack of system and of supervision.

When all these schools were closed and the children were brought to the academy, conditions changed entirely. The pupils have been graded, and all the benefits incident to the graded school system are enjoyed.

Formerly the school year was of twenty-eight weeks' duration. It has been lengthened so that there are thirty six weeks of schooling each year. One-sixth more time spent in school is of great advantage to the child and enables an institution to do much more toward fitting him for life's work.

One of the reasons why people flock to the cities is because of the social instinct, the desire to meet and to associate with people. The central school is a factor in keeping the boy on the farm. The opportunity is afforded the children of cultivating their social nature through the centralization plan. Rough edges are knocked off, the intellect is quickened, courtesy and politeness are acquired and individuality is developed. The rural home and the farm are brought into close proximity with civili-

zation and become desirable places of abode. The children enjoy the advantages of the village or city schools and after school hours are placed back in the country where they escape the evils of idleness which ruin many a village boy and girl.

Again, pride in a school is much increased by centralization. The better work done, the more creditable showing made by the children, the more pretentious school-house, all work together to quicken public pride and interest in the school. It has been the experience of Fairfax that the parents from far and near congregate whenever school entertainments are given. In the little town with not over thirteen hundred inhabitants, five hundred or six hundred people gather frequently at school functions. Even men and women who can neither read nor write are often met within the school building. Such general interest maintained by the public is very helpful and augurs well for the schools.

It has been demonstrated at Fairfax that regularity in attendance is increased by transportation and it is evident on the face of the proposition that pupils who are conveyed to and from school at public expense are not tardy. There is also, of course, better enforcement of the truancy law. Out of a possible 100 per cent. of attendance during the school year of 1903-1904, prior to the opening of the central school, the average attendance was 81 per cent. in the rural schools. In 1906-1907, after consolidation had been brought about, the average attendance reached approximately 90

per cent. During the last spring it has been even higher.

It is frequently urged by parents against the transportation plan that there is not proper oversight and that therefore they prefer to have their children in the district schools nearer home. It is true in Fairfax that the children are more carefully looked after in the central school than in the district school. Responsible barge drivers are employed and as soon as the school building is reached the children are under the immediate oversight of teachers. A person is in charge of them also during the noon hour. Relative to the argument that children have to be absent from home all day when they attend the central institution, this is precisely the practice in the majority of cases where the children go to district schools, since nearly all pupils in rural districts carry their dinners.

In the matter of instruction there is no comparison in the advantages offered by the central school over those afforded in the district school. The teachers are paid from one-third to one-half more, and this fact alone guarantees much better work. The school is under supervision and the course is so graded that any normal child may complete the elementary course in eight years. With one exception, each teacher at Fairfax has but one grade, and so instruction may reach the highest degree of efficiency. By the introduction of the departmental plan in the three grammar grades, the standard in instruction has been raised and it is felt by the principal and by the teachers that strong work is being done. Music and drawing

are rarely taught in country schools. At Bellows Academy these subjects have been under the direction of a competent instructor and all children have pursued a graded and systematized course in these branches. Free-hand drawing, mechanical drawing and water color have all been taught. Nature study and natural science have also been taken up. Country boys and girls, the sturdy element in our population, and the hope of the future, on whose brows may rest the highest honors of the nation, are being given all the advantages of the city school and at the same time, and I repeat it to emphasize the point, they are shielded from the results of idleness experienced by village children and are deriving the untold benefits of industry and of communion with nature.

Too much cannot be said concerning the economy of the pupils' time. Many a boy and girl goes to the district school ten and twelve years and even then has not finished, or at least does not know that he has finished, his course, while in the central school, any boy or girl of normal mentality can easily complete the elementary course in eight years and is then fitted and well fitted to enter upon a secondary course of study in any high school. It should be added that the feeling of satisfaction and the mental grasp acquired by pupils cause many to go on with a high school course who would not do so had their earlier preparation been gained in the district school. During the four years that the system of consolidation has been in operation in Fairfax, nearly every pupil who has completed the elementary course has entered subse-

quently upon high school work. This is due in part to the novelty of the experiment but also in part to the influence of association with those who are going on with higher branches of work. Had the old district system been maintained, I am confident that a large majority of these pupils would never have been found within the walls of a school room beyond the compulsory school age.

In the rural school where there are only one or two in a class there is naturally little rivalry, little interest, little incentive to good work. In the central school, the child being placed in a class where many others are doing the same work, is impelled to greater effort by the natural impulse to outdo his mates and by the established standards by which he must measure his attainments. He is also carried on by the enthusiasm engendered by numbers and his interest is maintained and heightened by the use of modern school apparatus.

In the place of poorly ventilated and unevenly heated schoolrooms, Bellows Academy affords a pure, well-tempered atmosphere. These two factors alone contribute much to the general efficiency of work. Furthermore, the length of recitation periods is three times longer than it could possibly be in an ungraded school. This triples the amount of instruction given a pupil in any subject each day.

The only test of the value of any system is in results. The most vital outcome of centralization of schools at Fairfax, its effect upon the children, we have had a chance to observe in the last four years. While many instances could be cited, I

have selected one family from which five children came to us. I have never seen imprinted upon the faces of children such absolute indifference, such complete despair, such entire lack of interest in the ordinary joys of childhood. Stooping shoulders indicated a taxing of physical strength far out of proportion to their years; lack of response to any advances on the part of teachers and pupils showed that their whole lives had been bounded by the narrow confines of a meagre farm; unkempt hair, dirty hands and faces, soiled clothing unsuitably made, all bespoke extreme abjection. Those of us who were especially interested will never forget the advent of the hair ribbon on the most forlorn looking member of this family. The transformation which is taking place in the lives of these children is evidenced by greater care regarding personal appearance and cleanliness, by the sympathetic glance of the eye, by the appreciative expression of countenance, by the straightening shoulders, by the more elastic step, and by the greater buoyancy of spirits. Such cases as these, and there are many of them, give certain evidence of the aesthetic and moral value of a centralized school system.

On the economic side, problems have been met which it is felt have been successfully overcome. Four years ago the plan was generally disapproved of. Recently I have asked several prominent citizens of Fairfax their views regarding the value of the consolidation plan. Each has spoken unreservedly in its favor and some affirm that the people in town would under no circumstances re-

turn to the district system. The impression prevails that property has appreciated in value to a considerable extent. The real estate of the town in 1904 was appraised at \$670,900, whereas in 1907 it had increased to \$724,000. This advance, however, is partly only apparent, since the electric plant of the Vermont Power and Manufacturing Company, at Fairfax Falls, which in 1904 was put into the list at \$15,000 was appraised in 1907 at \$50,000. This shows that \$35,000 of the \$54,000 increase is due to the advance in this one property. There has been, then, an appreciation of \$19,000 probably due wholly or in part to the increase in school advantages. Many more residences have been constructed and are being constructed than for many years past. The demand for property is much greater than in former years. I have been unable to secure figures to show that the value of farms along barge lines and on cross roads which are accessible to barge routes, has increased. The appraisal to be made three years hence will doubtless show many interesting developments. There have been cases where farms have been bought along the barge lines by men from out of town who had children to educate, one of whom says that he bought a farm in Fairfax because of the centralized school and that he paid \$500 more for the property than he otherwise would have paid, because of the transportation system. This gentleman lives between three and four miles from the central school. Another man established himself on a farm in Fairfax for the same reason and his property is five miles from the academy.

That the transportation system is appreciated by the people in the outlying districts is clearly evidenced by such cases as the following. One man with a large family of children, who lives within two miles of a district school which is much better than the average, also lives one and one-half miles from the terminal of one of the transportation routes. The town was paying him \$20 a term for carrying his own children to the district school. He chose to forego the \$60.00 a year, to convey unpaid his children one and one-half miles to the starting point of the public conveyance that they might enjoy the advantages of the central school. Another man who lives five miles from the academy and at the terminal of another route contemplated seriously, prior to the establishment of the central school, moving his family to the village for the purpose of educating his children. After transportation had been in operation six weeks or so he remarked that since he could have Bellows Academy at his own door each morning and evening, he no longer had any desire to settle in the village. This last instance goes to prove that the centralized school tends to keep good American families on the farm and to check the drift of rural population to thickly settled centres. It is the opinion of those who are watching the plan most closely that the population of the town has increased since the opening of the central school. I cannot back this statement with figures but I think it is true.

People never take kindly to innovations. The transportation system had to be forced upon the people and the directors were compelled to be ar-

bitrary in the matter of establishing transportation lines. I take one route by way of example. The directors determined to close a district school of thirty pupils and to transport them five miles to the academy. Immediately the parents were in arms; a petition bearing nearly all their signatures, praying that the school should not be closed, was presented to the school directors. The board, however, persisted in its course and during the first term met with constant abuse and fault-finding. Before the opening of the second term, the directors, wearied by constant complaint, proposed to reopen the district school in said locality. Again, the parents were in arms and said that their children should go to the academy if they themselves had to transport them at their own expense. This is typical of the attitude of the people in all parts of the town when the experiment was first felt by them.

Another obstacle encountered by the directors was the question as to the roads which the conveyances should traverse. It was decided by the board that the barges should pass over the direct roads from natural terminals to the academy and that all pupils who resided on cross roads should convey themselves to the main road. This created some dissatisfaction, but I think it now is conceded generally that this is the only sane and rational method to pursue. It is, of course, absurd to think that the barge can go to every door, and yet many good people thus contended. No one can blame a person for wishing to have the barge stop at his home, but considerations of expense

make this impracticable. The directors have established three routes, each five miles in length, four from three to four miles long and one of two and one-half miles. Thus all the children in town, with the exception of those in two districts, are brought to the central school. The cost per day per route is from \$1.25 to \$2.50, varying according to the distance, the number of pupils, and the condition of the roads.

The directors have been careful to look after the comfort and health of the children in every way possible. For those who have to walk or ride to the barge road warm places have been provided for waiting.

Various plans have been tried to pacify the people who live on cross roads. By appeal to outside authority an attempt was made to coerce the directors into sending the conveyances from the main roads. As the law now stands requiring equal advantages for all, so far as practicable, sending a barge to one home out of the direct route would make it necessary in equity to transport every child in town from his home to the school-house. For a term or two, as an experiment, the directors paid this class of people for walking to the barge routes, but this seemed unwise and unnecessarily expensive. The opinion seems now to prevail that responsibility for placing the child in school rests in part upon the parents, and this is as it should be.

Parents have objected to the central school on the ground that the children must be better dressed

than would be necessary in the district school. We have insisted upon cleanliness only.

In this paper I have tried to confine myself entirely to that which has been done in the way of consolidation of rural schools in Fairfax, and I have endeavored to state clearly those results which are apparent and which cannot be gainsaid. I am personally very enthusiastic over the proposition and feel that the town of Fairfax has successfully solved its own rural school problem. It is the almost unanimous opinion of parents and citizens that the plan has been and is a great success.

SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

E. M. ROSCOE,
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
SPRINGFIELD, VT.

At the last session of the Vermont legislature a bill was passed making possible the supervision of our rural schools. No wiser piece of school legislation has been enacted in recent years. For too long the attention of educators and of law makers has been directed toward the city and village schools. Here excellent systems have been built up, experienced teachers have been engaged and expert supervision provided. But the "little old red school house" in the valley and on our rugged hill-sides has been neglected and alone it has worked out its own salvation.

District supervision of the rural schools is not a new idea in some of the New England states. The many vexatious and perplexing problems incident to the introduction of a new system have already, in some instances, been solved and the great benefits derived are apparent. But we, in Vermont, are now engaged in a pioneer work; we have only begun to clear the field; our greatest work lies before us. It is of this field and this work here in Vermont that I wish especially to speak. No greater opportunity for work ever offered itself to any body of men than that which is given to the Vermont district superintendents. And no work needed more to be done.

That our rural schools have been sadly neglected, no one will deny. Excellent individual schools have been maintained in many instances, but the schools in our rural communities, as a whole, have been left to look out for themselves. It is not the province of this paper to discuss general conditions as existing, but in setting forth the work of the district superintendent and stating what it is hoped may be accomplished, present conditions must necessarily be considered.

The chief purpose of district supervision is to improve the condition of our rural schools. To secure this result our teaching force must be made more efficient, the interest of the parents solicited, a course of study better adapted to the needs of the pupils adopted, and a public sentiment created which will demand that the children in every rural community shall have as good an educational opportunity as is enjoyed by the children of the vil-

lage or city. Let us consider how these results may be accomplished.

A good school implies a good teacher. Other equipment, however important, may be dispensed with, but a teacher is a necessity. At present the number of trained teachers is far short of meeting the demands of our schools. There are scarcely enough to fill the larger and more desirable village and city schools. There is, therefore, a large number of untrained, inexperienced teachers in our rural schools who need instruction. Here is the superintendent's opportunity. It becomes his duty to give such teachers proper training. He will find, in most instances, that the teacher is willing and anxious to do but that she does not know how. If the teacher is bright and responsive, there is no work more satisfactory than that done with such a teacher; there is an enthusiasm which is sometimes lost with a teacher of longer experience.

Carefully planned courses of study should be laid out for the schools of each town. The manual issued by the state department is most excellent in every way, but I think this should be supplemented with an outline based upon the text-books in use. Many teachers do not know what to select and what to omit and they go through the book, page by page. Plan books are excellent if properly kept. A teacher is obliged to look over lessons in advance when some such a system is used. A teacher should plan out her work if not required to do so; a good teacher will do so, but there are those who do not seem to think it is necessary. Frequent teachers' meetings and conferences should be held. A

teacher should be encouraged and should feel that the superintendent is her best friend; she should feel that he comes to her school as a helper and not as a critic. No superintendent should tear down unless he can help build up. No recommendation for a change in the manner of conducting the work or of general room management should be made without a reason being given for the change. Arbitrary authority from a superintendent arouses the antagonism of the teacher.

I have mentioned only a few of the ways in which greater efficiency of the teachers may be secured. The very fact that there is a superintendent, one who is interested in the work, is a help. So many teachers have told me that now they feel that they had something to work for, that there is someone who will back them up in their efforts. No one appreciated better than the teachers the conditions of the schools, and they are glad that there is some hope of conditions being improved. To them the new supervision law is a great help. They feel that now they are a part of a system, and that each school is a link in a chain and not a separate unit as formerly. And it is through the teachers that a superintendent must expect to accomplish his chief results. While in conversation with one whose opinion I prize highly I received this bit of advice: "Work with your teachers, never mind public criticism, for as you are successful with your teachers, so will your work prove successful."

How to arouse the interest of parents in our rural schools is a very much discussed question. There

is not the close relationship existing between the school and the home that there should be. The causes for this have been too often discussed to need consideration here. We all believe that the school and the home should work together for the education of the child. We have been asking in vain that the parents should visit our schools. The average parent is too busy to give up time to visiting school. Nor should the failure to visit the regular sessions be taken as an evidence of a lack of interest. A parent who has a child in any school is bound, by the nature of things, to be interested, and if the school is interesting the child, it will interest the parent. It should be the duty of the superintendent to see that these two institutions, the home and the school, are brought together, and that each shall more completely supplement the work of the other. He should become acquainted with the people in his district. When possible, he should visit them in their homes. He should discuss with them the needs of the school and by every possible means endeavor to secure their co-operation in the work in which he is interested. I would advocate holding parents' meetings in the rural communities. Special exercises should be arranged when the work of the pupils may be inspected. The success of this new movement of district supervision here in Vermont depends wholly upon the way it is received by the people, and it is absolutely essential that the superintendent should come into close, friendly relation with the people of his district.

The district supervision law is another step to-

ward giving equal school advantages to all the school children of the state. The free text-book and transportation laws have been enjoyed by all, regardless of location, but the benefits received from expert supervision have been confined to comparatively few localities. It should be the earnest endeavor of every district superintendent to further equalize the advantages. First, by increasing the length of the school year. In too many instances only 28 weeks are maintained, the smallest number allowed by law for a legal school. This places the pupils of our rural schools at a great disadvantage. I am pleased to report that three of the towns in my district have voted to increase the school year from one to three weeks. Second, our school houses should be made more attractive. Compare the advantages of some of our rough, unpainted, rural school houses, situated in the last place designed by nature as a fit place to build a school house, its interior as ugly, or uglier, than its exterior appearance, with its "hand carved" benches, bare walls, or worse still, walls decorated with cheap, highly colored chromos; compare, I say, such a condition with some of our well built village school houses, with their green lawns and beautiful shrubbery, with rooms fitted with comfortable desks and their walls hung with beautiful pictures. Are we offering equal advantages when our school houses offer such striking contrasts? A sentiment should be aroused which would result in remodelling many of our rural schools and in making them more beautiful, both outside and in.

Third, the benefits to be derived from a public library should not be denied a child because he lives in a rural community. At small expense a traveling library of such books as may be needed may be brought to any rural school. The children should be given such reading as will appeal to them and they should have all they want. If there is a lack of interest in reading of any kind, an interest should be aroused. There is no greater educational training possible than that received from the right use of books.

Fourth, we should endeavor to adapt our courses of study to the needs of the particular localities. The tendency of our educational system has been to educate for the city. Our rural schools should study rural conditions. Our boys and girls should be brought into a closer and more perfect harmony with their surroundings and not made discontented with them. It is as great an art to become a master of the soil as an operator of a machine. We may not be able to hold our boys and girls on the farm after they have left school, but during their school days we may teach them something of the possibilities which the farm affords them.

When we have lengthened our school year, beautified our school houses, strengthened our courses of study by adapting them to local conditions, when, in fact, we shall offer our rural school children opportunities equal to those of the village children, I believe we shall see an end of that exodus of population from the rural communities to the village or city. Parents move now that they may give their children better educational oppor-

tunities. If we equalize the advantages, more will remain on the farms.

These are some of the problems which confront the district superintendents for solution. The task is a large one and an important one. It will be necessary not only to train the teachers but to educate the people to a point when they will see that some of these things are necessary. It is indeed a hopeful sign when one of the leading political parties in the state pledges itself in its party platform to the continuance of our present educational policy.

THE PROBLEM OF GRADING AND CLASSIFICATION IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

E. S. WATSON,
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In his recent treatment of the rural school, William E. Chancellor says that "it still continues (despite the growth of the cities) to be the chief instrument of modern American education." Of how great moment is it, then, to make the rural school as effective as possible in the struggle for better education—to check its acknowledged wastes and give full play to its peculiar natural advantages. My topic, "The Grading and Classification in Rural Schools," is worthy of careful consideration, since it constitutes one substantial phase of the general

subject, "Ways and Means for the Betterment of Rural Schools."

A year ago it fell to my lot to become actively connected with the rural schools of three towns. In one of these no grading had been attempted. In the other two the pupils were classified on a nine-grade basis. The two situations in the district reminded me of the scrofulous heir in Thackeray—sick unto death before receiving the king's touch and dead soon after. That is to say, in the average ungraded school there was no definiteness of aim, no regard for balance of progress in the several studies pursued by the various classes, little or no attempt to expend time and energy economically—in short, the whole course of daily events and exercises was exceedingly dull and largely chaotic. In the average school, graded in blind imitation of the prevailing village scheme for nine years, there was something styled a system and not much of anything else. Here teachers were nervously ding-ing harsh bells and children were almost continuously trotting hither and thither in a frantic scramble to get through all the scheduled recitations. In one school of twelve pupils, there were eight grades and 58 daily recitations, while in a neighboring town in which the same system was in vogue, there was a school whose daily recitations numbered 74. It is idle to say that none but the worst of mechanical results could be secured in such schools. Even less real teaching could but prevail in them than in the other class of rural school mentioned above. On the other hand, there was a distinctness of purpose here, a decided attempt to do

something definite and to get somewhere at some set time. So each of the two appeared at once to have its advantages and its disadvantages. How to evolve a third, embracing the merits and discarding the defects of both, was and is the problem.

In the main, there is little that is new and original in the suggestions I have to offer; for they are based very largely upon the advice of various students of rural school conditions.

In the place of nine grades, I would have three periods—the primary, the intermediate, and the advanced. In schools where the pupil conditions rendered it unquestionably necessary, I would form the children of each period into two divisions—the A and the B—but two such divisions in all three periods of any given school ought to be quite unusual. In the primary period these divisions would be more especially based upon ability to read, while in the other two periods the dividing line would be determined by the pupil's ability to cope with both arithmetic and language; but in forming these divisions, I would enter into all sorts of compromises in order to form classes numbering at least two pupils, since one pupil can never constitute a real class.

A moment's consideration of this scheme will show that, in practice at large, it will not call for more than half as many classes as are demanded by the unwieldy nine-grade plan. That is, under ordinary conditions, twenty to thirty exercises per day will be required, and this is a number which the ungraded rural school generally exceeds. But while tending greatly to reduce the number of classes

which the nine-grade plan calls for, this scheme exhibits just as much definiteness as the nine-grade plan is capable of embodying when applied to one-teacher schools; for there are positively as many guide-boards for direction and hitch-posts of attainment as the average teacher in the ordinary rural school can possibly use to any real advantage.

The lines of demarcation between the three periods are, perhaps, well enough defined, but it may not be out of place to treat of them very briefly.

Pupils crossing the boundary between the primary and intermediate periods should be able to read well at sight from the ordinary second reader; to spell familiar words of one and two syllables which contain no silent or peculiarly sounded letters; to copy legibly in script, write from dictation simple sentences taken from the ordinary first reader, and reproduce very simple stories both orally and in writing; to read and write numbers to 1,000; to count money, recognizing halves and quarters of things in general through the relation of half-dollars and quarter-dollars to the whole dollar; to add and carry, subtract and "borrow" (as we say), and multiply and divide by numbers up to ten; to handle readily simple problems involving one or two of the four fundamental processes of arithmetic; to distinguish forms, directions, colors; to recognize simple relative values. A score of other things might be added to this list, but it is long enough to contain most of the essentials to be mastered in the primary period.

Beginning here, the intermediate period should carry the pupil forward far enough to develop in

him the ability to read fluently from the ordinary third and fourth readers; to spell common words of two and three syllables; to write a neat, plain hand at a fair rate of speed; to be at home in the four fundamental processes of arithmetic; to handle readily the common weights and measures; to determine factors; to deal with ordinary cases of fractions, both common and decimal; to make statements of store accounts and balance the same; to write bills, receipts, letters, simple descriptions of places and things, and dictation exercises involving the proper use of capitals, the period, the simplest uses of the comma, the apostrophe, and quotation marks; to give evidence of a good degree of familiarity with the facts of geography as set forth in the ordinary elementary text-book.

The advanced period must, of course, include whatever else of elementary education is to be furnished by the rural school—enough at least to enable a pupil of good natural stuff to pass examinations similar to those of the last set sent out by the State Department of Education to determine the fitness of applicants for admission to the approved high schools of this commonwealth.

Now, reverting to the primary period, let us analyze it to show what the scheme would include in the A and B divisions.

All should be placed in the A division who are able to demonstrate the fact that they can read at sight the early pages of the ordinary first reader; can give the sounds of the consonants, and the common sounds of the vowels and the easiest phonograms; can spell familiar one-syllable words;

can copy legibly in script; can read and write numbers to 100; can handle halves, thirds, fourths of numbers up to ten which exactly contain two, three, four; can write Roman numerals up to XII; can readily recognize lengths and distances which are related to each other, as one to two, one to three, one to four; can tell directions, colors and common shapes.

Beginners and all who fall below this work should be kept in the B division till they make a success of it. If well taught, pupils of average ability can easily cover these essentials within their first year of school.

The rest of the work-scheduled above for the primary period and falling to the A division will require in most cases two years for its proper accomplishment. Some pupils, however, can do this work well in a year. Therefore, I believe the whole ground should be covered topically in three terms if there is any pupil in the class who appears to take each step firmly and with good understanding. This method of procedure would enable the bright pupil to advance as fast as he was capable of going, while the slow ones would have to repeat their work the following year. This repeated work, though distasteful to contemplate, would be capable of taking on certain attractive changes in its color and complexion if in the hands of a wide-awake and versatile teacher.

In its arrangement for the B division of the intermediate period, the scheme purposes to give to the bright boy who has done double work in the last three terms of the primary period a fairly easy

year's work. The schedule of essentials for this year is as follows:

Reading from the ordinary third reader and supplementary readers of similar difficulty; spelling of two-syllable words and the easiest and most common three-syllable words; language to include, through dictation, much drill in the use of capitals, common abbreviations, the period, the apostrophe, and quotation marks; letter writing in proper form; arithmetic to include much drill on multiplication and division tables and tables of denominate numbers, long multiplication, long division, statements and balancing of store accounts, addition and subtraction of very simple fractions; geography of the neighborhood and home town; state geography through picture and map study; stories about interesting places studied.

The A division of the intermediate period, like that of the primary, is designed to cover one year or two years according to the ability of the pupil concerned. The work, of course, includes all that of the intermediate period which has not been allotted to the B division just considered. It would seem to be easily within the power of many pupils thoroughly to accomplish this work in a year if it were taken up by topics with a capable teacher. Those pupils who made but an indifferent success of it would be obliged to repeat, as were those in the same condition in the primary period.

This brings us to the consideration of the divisions in the advanced period.

The work for the B division may be roughly outlined as follows:

Reading from geographical and historical texts such as Carpenter, Blaisdell, Pratt and from selected English and American classics; spelling of words of three and four syllables, emphasis being laid upon the most familiar words; fractions, compound quantities, percentage and its common applications; the simple sentence as made up of subject and predicate and modifiers of each, declension, comparison, conjugation, etc., as outlined in the Vermont Teacher's Manual, pages 39 and 40; dictation exercises for the sake of accuracy in form, spelling and punctuation, and the writing of letters, notes, bills, receipts and simple descriptions of places and things; the physical, industrial, commercial and political geography of the Western Hemisphere, with a special, intensive study of the geography of our own country; the history of America up to 1789 as treated in the ordinary school text written for grades seven to nine.

No pupil should be allowed to pass on from this work until he has done it thoroughly and shows good ability to hold what he has thus far acquired.

The program of work for the A division of the advanced period appears rather formidable, but should not prove to be more than a year's task for a pupil who has learned how to study and is able and willing to devote to school work an hour a day at home. The following is a skeleton of its requirements:

Reading, spelling and writing as provided for in the outline for the B division; powers, roots, the metric system, the state's method of assessing taxes

and of handling partial payment notes, miscellaneous problems; a careful review of the work in grammar and an extension of the work in composition as outlined for the B division, different kinds of sentences, the uses of phrases and clauses, analysis, parsing; the Eastern Hemisphere, taken up in the same way as the Western in the preceding year, and a thorough review of the geography of the United States; the history of our country from 1789 to the present day and a review from the beginning, taking up in connection with this the history of the state; physiology, one-half year; civics, one-half year.

Probably it would be advisable for all except the brightest and strongest pupils to take this same work, subject to minor variations, for two consecutive years.

The daily program which the foregoing scheme of grading and classification would lead to is as follows:

PRIMARY PERIOD—B DIVISION.

Reading, spelling and oral number work.
Reading, spelling and oral language work.
Reading, spelling and geography.

A DIVISION.

Reading, spelling and oral number work.
Reading, spelling and oral language work.
Reading, spelling and geography.
Total number of daily exercises for primary period—6.

INTERMEDIATE PERIOD—B DIVISION.

Reading and spelling (morning).
Reading and spelling (afternoon).
Arithmetic.
Language.
Geography.

A DIVISION.

Reading and spelling.
Arithmetic.
Language.
Geography.
Total number of daily exercises for intermediate period—8.

ADVANCED PERIOD—B DIVISION.

Arithmetic.
Grammar and composition.
Geography.
History.

A DIVISION.

Arithmetic.
Grammar and composition.
Geography.
History.
Physiology or civics.

A AND B DIVISIONS.

Reading.
Spelling.
Total number of daily exercises for advanced period—11.

It will be noticed that this total of 25 exercises per day is based upon maximum conditions; in many rural schools an A or a B division will not be required in one period, at least, which will reduce the number of classes per day by three or four. In addition to this maximum of 25, however, it is only fair to mention three exercises which no well-arranged school can afford to crowd out of its daily program:

1. An opening exercise in the morning, consisting of devotionals, music, and current events.
2. An opening exercise in the afternoon, devoted to nature study, practical hygiene, good manners, elementary civics and profitable stories.
3. An exercise in writing or drawing.

Though the following miscellany may be considerably like the remarks of the minister who preached from his text, still some parts of it have at least an indirect bearing upon the grading and classification in rural schools.

One of the worst faults of rural children is that of being mentally numb and slow of comprehension. The foregoing scheme of grading and classification should tend to obviate this defect; for the pupil who abides by it is obliged to move along with the work at a fair rate of speed, and any incipient inclination on his part to dawdle is likely to be arrested before it becomes a habit.

It will be noticed that this scheme provides for only a very little beyond the traditional subjects. It is not to be inferred, however, that its supporter

is opposed to the introduction of other studies into the rural school curriculum.

The mere fact of living in a rural situation almost necessarily brings into youthful experience many useful and interesting facts about animals, birds, insects, plants, trees, soils, rocks, and various other things which are more or less foreign to city life. Moreover, the farmer boy's sense of comparative values, his power to trace effects back to their causes, and his ability to make a shrewd shift in an emergency, develop as naturally as his strong arms and stalwart shoulders. Hence, in working out any problem pertaining to the rural school, be it grading and classification or any other, a proper regard for an economical use of time and energy demands a constant, rational recognition of the country-bred child's personal factors and peculiar needs as in many respects quite distinct from the factors and needs in the case of his city cousin; and on the sole ground of a lack of time for all things but the fittest, the very best program for the rural school must rigorously tabu every frill and every bit of scrappy stuff which is of doubtful educational content.

But when all is said and done about the grading and classification of the rural school as we find it, this institution, so great in its glorious history and its enchanting reminiscence, and so small in its capacity for adaptation to the requirements of educational efficiency in the present day, is bound, sooner or later, to give place to the four-room, eight-grade building of modern plan and equipment, erected at such a place as will best facilitate the daily transpor-

tation of 50 to 100 children to and from its doors. Though the day of this most desirable change might be considerably hastened if those of us who are dealing directly with rural school problems should apply our energy to the task of widening the gulf between the rural school and the graded school of the city and village, still such a course of action would be more or less revolutionary and disastrous in its effect upon the twice unfortunate boys and girls whose luck it is to be corralled in the rural schools for the little school training falling to their unhappy lot.

The simple and very imperfectly worked-out scheme of grading and classification briefly set forth in the last 20 minutes purports to be a temporary makeshift only and aims toward a possible small advantage to the interests of country children until the glad day for abandoning that famous relic, the "little red schoolhouse," shall arrive.

Before we leave this room, I trust that a general expression of critical opinion will be made regarding this scheme and that many practical and practicable suggestions upon the subject will be freely voiced. In our endeavors to benefit the rural school it is impossible to overdo. Rural schools, like the poor mentioned in the Gospel, "ye have—always with you, and whensoever ye will ye can do them good."

THE REWARD OF THE TEACHER.

FLAVEL S. LUTHER,
PRESIDENT OF TRINITY COLLEGE,
HARTFORD, CONN.

Perhaps it would have been proper to add three words to the title of this address so that it should read, "The Reward and the Punishment of the Teacher;" for there is probably no employment in which men and women engage which illustrates more completely the fact that we get out of the world something very much like what we put into it. There are relations in human life in which it is difficult to say that this principle obtains. There are so many instances in which good intentions seem to bring unfortunate results, in which good seems to come out of evil, in which effort and result appear mutually disproportionate or inharmonious, that the government of the world by a system of rewards and punishments is not always obvious. Not so I think in our profession.

We who are teachers and many of whom have been teachers for a considerable part of our lives are familiar with the fact that the pecuniary rewards of our work are meager. This is the one proposition that I submit in absolute confidence that it will be disputed by nobody. The salaries paid to teachers in the public schools are in most places distressingly inadequate to the service which is expected. Within a few days the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation have published a pamphlet showing that the compensation received by the professors and in-

structors in our colleges is pitifully small, small when compared with the salaries which may be hoped for by men engaged in similar work in other countries than our own. I do not need nor intend to dwell upon this phase of my subject. I call attention to it because, perhaps, I can do no less. It is pleasant to think that there is a considerable stir with reference to this matter in various quarters and that the public is gradually waking to the fact that public servants who discharge the manifold and important duties entrusted to teachers deserve a higher pecuniary recognition than they have thus far obtained. May the day soon come when the agitation to which I have alluded shall result in something tangible, in something which can be deposited in a bank subject to check.

But I am constrained to remark that the service rendered to mankind by any man or woman who works conscientiously and faithfully, with high ideals of duty, and actuated by a strong love for mankind, is not measurable in money. It may be conceded, it is conceded by everybody that any person who does his best, or who does her best to contribute to the uplift of mankind, or to discharge faithfully duties which seem to belong to the individual, is entitled to such material comforts as civilization has made possible for men and women. To be sure this is a vague statement. Human life is lived by so many different standards that the luxuries of many are regarded as necessities by many others; and the time is not likely soon to come when there will be a socialistic and fairly even division of the good things of life among us all. Yet I think

that the phrases which I have used and the statement that any one who does the best that he can for others is entitled to a recompense which will ensure some kind of a comfortable living does convey a definite idea. I think the statement is quite in line with a statement found in a book of considerable importance, which is as follows: "The laborer is worthy of his hire." Nevertheless it does not follow that the hire is in any sense the measure of the laborer's services. It is an acknowledgment, a concession to a recognized human need. When we complain, as some of us are disposed to do, of the disproportionately large salaries that are paid to men who seem to be rendering a small equivalent therefor, we do not even then affect to believe that service can be measured in money.

It would be a singularly inefficient president of the U. S. who should not be of infinitely greater value to the nation than anything which could be purchased by the two hundred thousand dollars plus traveling expenses which he receives during his term of office. For example, is not a good president worth more to the country than a battleship? Yet the cost of a Dreadnaught would, I believe, pay the president's compensation for from now until the year 2040, a period of one and one-third centuries.

The very much larger salaries which are paid to the heads of vast commercial and manufacturing enterprises are, I suppose, equally incommensurable with the services to civilization which may be but are not always rendered by those in enjoyment of such incomes. So I may state as a general truth that the rewards of life are really to be looked for

in something else than dollars and cents, and if this is true in nearly every walk of life, it is singularly true in the profession of teaching.

What, then, are the directions in which the teacher should look for the due reward of his deeds? First of all, I should say in the lofty character of the work itself. There is something eminently satisfactory in the feeling that what one is trying to do is distinctly worth while, that if it is well done it will count for something. Indeed, this feeling is a condition of any kind of successful or tolerable work.

I remember an old story of a man who, being out of work and sincerely and earnestly desiring some employment whereby he could earn the necessities of life for himself and his family, applied to a wealthy man for a job. The would-be laborer was set at work pounding a log with the head of an axe at a fair price per day, and he endured the situation for one single day, resigning at night with the statement that he could not chop wood without seeing the chips fly. There is a lot of human philosophy in this apocryphal anecdote. Nobody can work a great while without the feeling that the work amounts to something and that things will be different because of it. Now when you and I think of the tremendous issues that are involved in the faithful discharge of our duties as instructors of youth, we certainly have a right to feel proud, to regard our occupation as one of the most important things in the world. For, think of it! Think of the fact that the history of the twentieth century is more largely in our keeping than elsewhere!

Think how the mighty issues that are to determine the character of civilization for at least the next hundred years are being determined largely by ourselves in our every-day work in the schoolhouse and in the class room!

It is a favorite diversion of mine when opportunity offers to stand on a street corner near one of our large public schools in Hartford near nine o'clock and see the gathering of the children. They come from every direction. They are of various ages. In Hartford they are of many races and they come from homes of many kinds. But at nine o'clock they are all safely gathered in and are being made into American men and women, the American men and women of the years that are to come. Have you ever reflected what a marvelous thing takes place in this country at nine o'clock in the morning? How all over New England and the Middle States, as the clock reaches that critical hour, the hundreds of thousands of those who constitute the America that is to be are gathering in the great schoolhouses of the cities, in the smaller buildings of town and country, there to determine what American history is to be? Nor is that all, for when the sun has traveled another hour in his westward march, the great Mississippi valley witnesses the same scene and the boys and girls are summoned just as they are here to take up the same work that our children do and to fit themselves for the same duties as those for which our children are preparing. And again, when it is eleven o'clock here, under the walls of the Rocky Mountains the same story goes on. And at noon time, when it is morn-

ing on the Pacific coast, again the bell rings and the children gather to be taught. Nor is the story done, for when late at night our little ones are dreaming, the little brown brothers and sisters in the far away islands of the east are pattering along the tropic paths, bare-footed and bright-eyed, toward the schoolhouses, where America is teaching to her latest wards the same lessons that she is teaching her own children, and building up who shall say what mighty forces for the determination of human destiny. I tell you, fellow-teachers, nine o'clock in the morning is the greatest hour in the world for us. Once the nation stood still and almost held its breath in sorrow and in respect when a great president was taken to his rest. I sometimes wonder whether it would not be a fine thing if once in a while, not every day for that would scarcely be practicable, but if once in a while the nation were to stop for a moment and think, "Now school is beginning!" if the nation were to stop work and listen for the tramp of the little feet that thread their way up the staircases and through the doorways of our schoolhouses, there to learn how to become the greatest of all men and of all women, citizens in a free republic. For the sound of those marching feet is the tramp of the generations that are to come. It is instinct with the energies of a time not yet born. It jars the continent with the thrilling consciousness of what is to be. Intimately concerned are we, more intimately than any others, with this majestic spectacle. Upon us lies a burden so tremendous that we may well be proud that we have been thought possibly worthy to help carry it.

Somewhere a writer has put in the lips of a knight of ancient times some words like these: "Yes, the load of a soldier's armor is heavy, but a man stands up straight under it." Surely this is a reward which we can claim for our own, this consciousness that we have been called to carry a mighty load of responsibility. There is something in this, is there not? Do you not feel that to have a share in a work surcharged with such tremendous potency for good is a recompense for many tribulations, for much straining of weak bodies at tasks difficult to be discharged, for many disappointments, for sickness, and for suffering, yes even for sacrifice which jeopardizes human life? It seems to me that what I am suggesting is true and that we have a right to stand up straight, with squared shoulders and fearless eyes, fronting the world as leaders of the world.

This, fellow-teachers, I count the greatest reward of our profession, namely the profession itself. In spite of the manifold but oftentimes exaggerated influences of heredity, in spite of the sinister outgrowths from objectionable homes, in spite of the difficulties which confront us on every side, it is true that there is placed in our hands with every successive generation of boys and girls something which may almost be termed a new world, a new race. It is ours to make it what it should be, and the task overshadows in importance and in dignity, I think, almost every other task which is entrusted to the children of men.

But now, aside from this reward of which I have already spoken, there is something rather

more intimate that comes to us and that is a unique opportunity for the exerting of whatever of influence grows from one's own personality. There is no profession in which the personal qualities of one who follows it are more potent than in that of the teacher. I appeal to your own recollections of your childhood and early years. Think one moment, what is it that comes to your mind when you dream, as we all do, of your own school days? Many things, doubtless. But above all is there not this thing, the personality of the teacher under whose administration you worked? We have forgotten the lessons that they taught us. Many of the things they said were not true. The growth in human knowledge has thrown upon the scrap heap the text-books that we studied and changed the subject matter of the theories that were communicated. But the man or the woman who sat at the teacher's desk is distinct and clear to us all and the influences that that man or woman exerted over us are working to-day in ourselves. We cannot forget them. We loved them, or, mayhap, we hated them, but we have not forgotten them.

Some years ago, it was my fortune to live in one of a little block of twenty-four houses, somewhat isolated from the rest of my city and, happily for us, there was a large group of children whose parents dwelt in the same block. It was a pleasant thing to see them playing about in the unfrequented street just at nightfall, and I noticed how they would gather and sit upon the curb in long rows like the swallows who assemble on the telegraph wires just before they migrate, always

talking busily and earnestly. They never would tell me what they were talking about, but occasionally by stalking them I was able to learn something of it, and the word which I could always hear was she, she, she, or her, her, her. Now this seemed premature for boys and incredible for girls, but a little investigation brought out the fact that "she" was the teacher. The teacher was always present with them, the school life was their life. I never heard these little ones talking to any good purpose about reading or spelling or geography, but they were almost invariably talking about the teacher and what they thought of her.

I tried another experiment. I asked some of my own college students, young men from eighteen to twenty-two years of age, what they first thought of when their minds went back to their school days. Invariably the answer was "the teacher." And sometimes I make another experiment still and go away back into the remote past and recall the days when I was a school boy, and inevitably it is the teacher who starts out of the past, unchanged, filled with the influences that were to determine the future life of the boys and girls among whom I grew up. And I feel sure that if you think now, you who are listening to me, you will agree that it is the teacher and not the lessons or the books or even the other scholars that come back first when you think of the days when you were at school.

This, then, is the second reward of the teacher, the consciousness that whatever is in us of good

has a unique opportunity for creating other good, that every power that we have has full opportunity for full fruition and for stamping itself into the future history of the world. With that comes the further thought that whatever is in us of evil also is sure to do an extraordinary amount of harm, that any petulance, any ill temper, above all any petty injustices of which we are guilty, are potent beyond the possibility of measure for evil in the world that is to be.

I know that I am presenting thoughts that are not new. I sometimes think that nothing that is worth saying is new. But it is well for us to remind ourselves of things like these, and especially at a time like this when a hard year's work is just over and the enlivenment of vacation has not yet taken full possession of us. It is well, I say, to think of the marvelous opportunity which we have for doing good and evil through the sheer force of each one's personality. For the lessons which you teach are going to be forgotten, and the books which contain alleged facts in science, and history, and literature, will be superseded. A great deal of what we think we know will turn out to be untrue, but as was the case with our teachers, so with us; we are going to be remembered. Stories of you are going to be told to the children of the children whom we teach. Help that we have offered is going to be handed down from generation to generation. Evil that we have wrought is going to count for years after the moss has grown

on our tombstones. And I repeat, this is also a reward or a punishment, a reward let us hope. For it is true indeed that our schools have reached this point, that any teacher whose influence, whose personal influence, is not more for good than for evil cannot retain a place in our school system.

There is a pleasant personal reward that comes to us teachers from time to time which is inexpressibly precious. I feel sure that all of you from time to time have received this of compensation for your work, that from the lips or from the pen of some pupil there has come to you now and then a word of appreciation and of thanks. Cannot you forget the long hours of drudgery, the manifold disappointments, and the ever-present fear of failure which visit us all, when some man or woman who has been your pupil reminds you of something you did for them or something you said to them, of which the outgrowth has been wholly good? Some boy or girl comes and reminds you of a circumstance which you have forgotten, and says "that was a turning point in my life," or, "I thank you for doing that; it made me better." I was thinking of rewards like these when, some time ago, I was saying that the work of a teacher could not be measured in money, for these are the real things in life; these are the real rewards that we receive. Not long ago, the head of an educational institution let me read a letter which came from a pupil (and he was not a very good one) who had just left his charge; and the young man said, after confession of many failures and

misdeeds, "I have read about Doctor Arnold at Rugby, and about the 'Head' in Kipling's school stories, and of other teachers in literature. I do not know how much that literature is worth, but I want to say that you have been the most powerful influence for good that so far has come into my life and I shall try in the years to come to show that the influence has been effective." Truly a reward like this is worth striving for, is worth suffering for.

And just one word more. I think you have found or will find when something of this sort comes to brighten your life that it is the things which you yourself have forgotten that have counted for the most, that it is the occasional remark, the unpremeditated deed, the simple, almost haphazard outcome of whatever you yourself are that counts for the most. The moments which seemed to you critical in your relations with your pupils usually turn out not to be so. It is the little things, the unconscious influence that counts for the most, and you can be sure that these little things and this unconscious influence will reach their highest efficiency as you make yourself all that a teacher should be in learning, in judgment, in high ideals of honor and integrity, in the lofty appreciation of the tremendous importance of what you are undertaking to do. In these things, and as you realize these things, will you more and more become the most important thing in our social organism, a thoroughly good teacher.

NECROLOGY—1908.

HON. WALTER E. RANGER.

It is written in the hearts of men, bound together by the fraternal ties of a common service: "In the midst of life we are in death, and the wisest cannot know what a day may bring forth. We live but to see those we love pass away into the silent land." In worthy observance of a fitting and time-honored custom, we pause in our usual proceedings, reverently call the roll of our dead, and offer a tribute of honor from lip and heart in commemoration of their kindly lives, cherished in memory, and their devoted service, honored among the noblest callings. Their absence teaches us gratefully to rejoice in greeting friends whose presence in our annual convention seems a necessary boon, but whose hand clasp and kindly smile we shall some time miss. While with tender solicitude we have perchance regarded one long revered and spared, suddenly another, strong in the vigor of service, is ruthlessly cut down by the "all devouring scythe of Time," and is gathered into the land where our fathers have gone before us.

"There is a reaper whose name is Death,
And with his sickle keen
He reaps the bearded grain at a breath
And the flowers that grow between."

In all this company there is none who has not occasion to think tenderly of his dead, and none who has not heard the rustle of the wings of God's

angel as he gave the scroll of death to friend or kin. While our affectionate sympathy may not assuage the grief or heal the broken lives of our brothers, yet in our fellowship of sorrow we may hope that they may find comfort as they manfully endure the march to life's west, though ever saddened by grief of the present time. Our heartfelt sympathy goes out to all mourning the loss of friends or kindred, who have heard the "voice of strange command," which calls "as friend to friend," and chosen hear but once.

"Out of the sound of ebb-and-flow,
Out of the sight of damp and star,
It calls you where the good winds blow,
Where the unchanging meadows are:
From faded hopes, and hopes agleam,
It calls you, calls you, night and day
Beyond the dark into the dream
Over the hills and far away."

And while we await the call of the silent voice one hears but once, let us keep our faith in the nobility of our calling, come closer in our fellowship of service, and cherish the memory of those who, like ourselves, were devoted to the service of children and youth.

IN MEMORIAM.

MAINE.

Joseph A. Locke.

Portland, 1905.

VERMONT.

Alvan Alden Kempton.
Newport, N. H., Sept. 8, 1872.
Saxton's River, Dec. 7, 1907.

MASSACHUSETTS.

George Henry Danforth.
Dover, N. H., Oct. 7, 1858.
Greenfield, Dec. 18, 1906.

William Henry Furber.
Winslow, Maine, 1859.
Boston, Jan. 24, 1908.

Daniel Collamore Heath.
Salem, Maine, Oct. 26, 1843.
Boston, 1908.

Electa Nobles Lincoln Walton.
May 12, 1824.
Newton, March 15, 1908.

RHODE ISLAND.

Joseph W. V. Rich.
Chesterville, Maine, 1849.
Providence, June 16, 1905.

George Abner Littlefield.
Chelsea, Mass., Feb. 11, 1851.
Providence, 1906.

Thomas Blanchard Stockwell.
Worcester, Mass., July 6, 1839.
Providence, Feb. 9, 1906.

Ellen Dodge.
Salem, Mass., Oct. 19, 1856.
Providence, Aug. 8, 1907.

CONNECTICUT.

Walter Bixby Ferguson.

Dixmont, Me., March 29, 1856.

Middletown, March 31, 1906.

Mrs. Anna Dyer Pollard.

Vermont.

Southington, Nov. 26, 1906.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON AFFILIATION OF N. E. EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

Your committee have given careful consideration to the matter placed in their hands, namely, the feasibility and advisability of an affiliation of other New England educational associations, with the American Institute of Instruction, and would make the following report:

In deciding any such question as the one before us, the conditions, tendencies, and needs of the time must be taken into account.

It is recognized by all that public education, and correspondingly, the life and work of the teacher, has increased in complexity by leaps and bounds during the last twenty-five years. New subjects have been introduced, supervisors of special subjects multiplied, the child outside of school leads a larger and less childlike life, and the moral training of the child seems in no small measure to have been shifted from the home to the school. Ac-

cordingly, organization, machine-like system, and a feeling of pressure characterize the educational atmosphere at the present time. On the other hand, there is manifest a growing tendency on the part of thoughtful and intelligent people to recognize education as a distinctive business or profession with its own body of technical details and problems which can only be successfully administered by those who have been professionally trained in that line. This is a most hopeful sign, and we of the teaching profession should assume this responsibility without hesitation, and show by our efficient handling of the work that we are worthy of this great and important trust.

Two great educational needs, therefore, present themselves:

First, the preparation of courses of study, methods of teaching them, and means to be used, which shall be so clear and comprehensive, specific and elastic, that the average teacher can see clearly the minimum requirements and the maximum possibilities in each subject for each grade, and also be given free scope for that individual treatment so necessary to such a vital process as developing a child's life.

This work is so closely connected with the needs and conditions of specific, differing communities that it can be accomplished best through local organizations and committees representing those organizations. A large number of these local educational organizations dealing not only with the general school problems of the community, but also

with special subjects, such as history, biology, physics, mathematics, etc., are already in existence and doing excellent work.

The second need is the unification of the educational forces, under the inspiration of common and high ideals, and with generous recognition on the part of each branch of workers of the place and value of every other branch.

This work can only be accomplished through large gatherings of teachers coming together from so wide a territory and such diverse kinds of work that all provincial lines are obliterated, each one begins to get a truer idea of the bigness of the work, and becomes impressed and encouraged by a conception of the great army of intelligent and active workers with whom he is associated. The National Educational association, the American Institute of Instruction, and the various state associations belong properly in this class of educational organizations.

There are, however, too many organizations and meetings making demands upon the time and energy of teachers, and what is worse, many of these organizations are trying to carry on a mixed program of local and general work which is ineffective along each line, and moreover, prevents teachers from attending other organizations which are doing good work along their one distinctive and legitimate line.

We believe that simplifying our life in this respect, and hence reducing the number of educational organizations through combining them into

the two classes just spoken of is a step, and perhaps the next step in educational progress, to be undertaken. Again, while we acknowledge that "westward the course of empire takes its course," and while we know that many of our strenuous brethren in other parts of the country are inclined to call us conservative, and relegate New England to a corner of the field, practically as well as geographically, yet we still believe that there were ideas, principles, and a spirit which underlay both the settlement of New England and its educational leadership in the past, which should be preserved, and which when applied thoughtfully to modern problems will continue to give, as it has in the past, stability and strength, and the true American flavor to our institutions. Therefore, there is a place and legitimate work for a distinctively New England educational organization.

Your committee would then make the following recommendations:

1. That the American Institute of Instruction establish as a part of its organization, departments, of which the following suggestive list is given,—kindergarten, elementary education, secondary education, normal schools, superintendence, physical training and hygiene, manual training and art, the number and subject of said departments to be determined by the Institute at its regular meeting, or by its board of directors at a regularly called meeting.

2. That any existing educational organizations dealing with the subject of any of these departments at the time when said department is to be

established, be asked to assume control of that department and continue from thence forward its life as a department of the American Institute. (Among such organizations we would name the N. E. Superintendents' association, The High and Classical School Teachers' association, The Eastern Kindergarten association.)

3. That the American Institute of Instruction hold biennial sessions, provided the board of directors can arrange with the various state teachers' associations in New England to hold biennial sessions alternating with those of the A. I. I., and that the board of directors be instructed to proceed at once to make such a proposition to the state associations in New England, and urge its adoption.

Respectfully submitted,

For the Committee,

WALLACE C. BOYDEN,
Chairman.

BUSINESS PROCEEDINGS

During the general sessions the following business was transacted:

Wednesday, July 8.

At the morning session, President Morrison appointed the following committees:

On Nominations: Walter E. Ranger, Rhode Island, chairman; Fred A. Verplanck, Connecticut; Joseph H. Blaisdell, New Hampshire; Robert J. Sisk, Maine; John T. Prince, Massachusetts; John L. Alger, Vermont.

On Resolutions: William D. Parkinson, Massachusetts, chairman; Henry T. Burr, Connecticut; William T. Foster, Maine; Clarence H. Dempsey, Vermont; Harry P. Swett, New Hampshire; Lewis H. Meader, Rhode Island.

The treasurer, Allison E. Tuttle, of Bellows Falls, reported that the total receipts for the year were \$2,307.18, and that the disbursements were \$549.28, leaving a balance of \$1,757.90.

The report had been approved by the Auditing Committee, and was accepted and adopted.

Thursday, July 9.

For the Committee on Nominations, Mr. Verplanck presented the following report:

OFFICERS FOR 1908-9.

PRESIDENT—Henry C. Morrison, Concord, N. H.

SECRETARY—Edwin C. Andrews, Shelton, Conn.

TREASURER—Allison E. Tuttle, Bellows Falls, Vt.

ASS'T. SECRETARY—Wendell A. Mowry, Central Falls, R. I.

ASSISTANT TREASURER—Carlos B. Ellis, Springfield, Mass.

1ST VICE-PRESIDENT—Chas. T. C. Whitcomb, Brockton, Mass.

STATE VICE-PRESIDENTS—*Maine*, George C. Purington, Farmington; W. E. Russell, Gorham; Payson Smith, Augusta; *New Hampshire*, F. C. Johnson, Hillsboro; Willis O. Smith, Lancaster; H. P. Swett, Franklin; *Vermont*, O. D. Mathewson, Barre; H. J. Stannard, Barton Landing; Isaac Thomas, Rutland; *Massachusetts*, Arthur C. Boyden, Bridgewater; Homer P. Lewis, Worcester; W. D. Parkinson, Waltham; *Rhode Island*, William H. Holmes, Jr., Westerly; Herbert W. Lull, Newport; Lewis H. Meader, Providence; *Connecticut*, Nathan L. Bishop, Norwich; Stanley H. Holmes, New Britain; Charles H. Judd, New Haven; *New York*, Thomas W. Balliet, New York city; Andrew W. Edson, New York city; Mary S. Snow, Brooklyn.

EX-PRESIDENT COUNSELLORS—John Kneeland, Roxbury, Mass.; Thomas W. Bicknell, Providence, R. I.; William A. Mowry, Hyde Park, Mass.; George A. Walton, West Newton, Mass.; Homer B. Sprague, Newton, Mass.; J. Milton Hall, Providence, R. I.; Ray Greene Huling, Cambridge, Mass.; George H. Martin, Lynn, Mass.; William W. Stetson, Auburn, Me.; Chas. W. Parmeter, Cambridge, Mass.; Albert E. Winship, Somerville, Mass.; George E. Church, Providence, R. I.; Mason S. Stone, Montpelier, Vt.; Wm. F. Bradbury, Cambridge, Mass.; Charles H. Keyes, Hartford, Conn.; Walter E. Ranger, Providence, R. I.

COUNSELLORS—Charles D. Hine, Hartford, Conn.; Walter B. Jacobs, Providence, R. I.; C. H. Morrill, Randolph Center, Vt.; E. R. Woodbury, Saco, Me.; James E. Klock, Plymouth, N. H.; Alvin F. Pease, Malden, Mass.; Walter H. Small, Providence, R. I.; Sarah Dyer Barnes, Providence, R. I.; Alice B. Reynolds, New Haven, Ct.; Kate E. Terrill, Montpelier, Vt.; Elizabeth J. Cairns, Hartford, Conn.; Elizabeth Sheppard, Nashua, N. H.; David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I.; William C. Crawford, Boston, Mass.

Voted, That the report of the Committee on Nominations be accepted, and that the secretary be instructed to cast a ballot of one for the officers as reported. The ballot was so cast, and the officers names above were declared elected for the year 1908-9.

Mr. Parkinson, chairman, reported for the Committee on Resolutions:

Resolved, That the American Institute of Instruction extends its thanks to the city of Burlington, its officials and its people, and to the University of Vermont, for their generous hospitality; to the several local committees for their efficient and effective service in making most adequate provision for the entertainment of the Institute and the enjoyment of its members; to the speakers upon the program for the suggestiveness and the inspiration of their addresses; to the press for its many courtesies and its full and accurate reports; and that we record our appreciation of the thoughtfulness, the thoroughness, and the skilful labor bestowed by the officers of the Institute upon the arrangements for this convention and the preparation of a most excellent program.

Resolved, That the multiplication of educational organizations and of associations for the advancement of various departments of teaching, while a significant mark of educational life and progressive activity, has now proceeded so far as to become burdensome upon the great body of ambitious teachers. Simplification has now become a duty, and steps should be taken towards a reduction in the number of meetings and a co-ordination of the various departments of professional activity in such way as to make less demand upon the time and energy of the individual teacher, and at the same time to make more effective the work of each organization. To such a movement the American Institute, with its memorable history and high traditions, may well lend its influence, and through its officers take such measures as may be found feasible toward affiliation with other educational organizations of New England.

Resolved, That we commend all efforts to preserve to every child a more extended period of education. We call for the more general and more effective enforcement of compulsory attendance laws, for their extension to those defective

or unfortunate children who are now practically exempt from their provisions, and for the more general enactment and enforcement of laws making a certain modicum of educational attainment a pre-requisite to employment. We recognize the consequent duty of adjusting the instruction of the schools more directly to the needs of that class of children who hitherto have left school at an early age.

Resolved, That we recognize the importance of the movement toward industrial education and commend the tendency toward co-operation between teachers and employers in the effort to solve the problems arising from this movement.

Resolved, That the two most fundamental needs of the public school are the securing of a higher order of teachers, and the securing of them in larger numbers, so that each may deal with a smaller number of pupils and may thus deal with them in a more personal way. The opportunity so to deal with personality will itself be an inducement to attract into the service of teaching men and women who possess the essential spirit of the teacher. While, therefore, we commend every effort to secure to teachers a larger pecuniary reward, and while we believe that the time has come for every state to fix a minimum below which local reactionaries may not reduce the wage of a teacher, we believe that improved teaching conditions, improved professional training, and improved efficiency are the most direct way to improved compensation, and that the question before every teacher, as ultimately before the child and the man, must ever be, not what doth it profit me, but what service shall I render.

Resolved, That while we note with satisfaction the increased attention given by the schools to the child in his natural and spontaneous activities, in which are exercised the powers of his being, physical, mental, moral, and while intellectual resourcefulness and technical skill are rightly emphasized as educational results, we would still remind ourselves that education is fundamentally a spiritual process; that the successes and failures of men are largely due to defects in spiritual qualities; that it is, therefore, of the highest importance that all the activities which are being brought within the scope of the modern school, shall bring into exercise those qualities of the spirit which are essential to the highest success; that one's attitude toward his task is as significant as his skill for its performance; that the essential basis of commercial education is commercial honor; that the gang instinct and team play can justify recognition in the curriculum only as they develop a spirit of co-operation and a loyalty that extends beyond the boundary of the gang; that the aim of physical training is to prepare a fit temple for the

indwelling spirit; and that the proof of the genuineness of an education is that indomitable spirit which makes of every vicissitude a stepping stone toward the more abundant life.

Voted, That the report of the Committee on Resolutions be accepted and placed on file.

At the close of the evening session a meeting of the newly elected board of directors was held. President Morrison presided. The secretary stated that the object of the meeting was:

To appoint a Committee of Arrangements for the meeting of 1909.

To take some action on the printing of the Book of Proceedings.

Voted, That the executive officers constitute a Committee of Arrangements for the meeting of 1909.

Voted, That the choice of the time and place for the meeting of 1909 be postponed to a special meeting of the directors to be called by the president the last Saturday in September.

Voted, That a Book of Proceedings be published and distributed to the active members, and that the president, the secretary and the treasurer constitute a committee for that purpose.

Voted, That the executive officers be instructed to carry out the recommendations of the Committee on Affiliation of New England Educational Associations as far as it seems expedient to them to do so.

Voted, That the executive officers ascertain if the changes made in the constitution in 1906 relating to the number of directors was wise.

Voted, That the executive officers plan that at future annual meetings only persons with badges be admitted to the sessions.

EDWIN C. ANDREWS,
Secretary.

Treasurer's Report

REVENUE.

Balance from previous year.....	\$2,034.00
Advance memberships	52.00
Back dues	97.00
1908 dues	212.00
1909 dues	1.00
Advertising	325.00
Excursions	74.10
Sale of volumes	19.77
Interest	38.79
	<hr/>
	\$2,853.66

EXPENSES.

Printing—

Bill of 1907	\$ 47.94
Volume of proceedings	272.28
Preliminary announcements....	89.38
Bulletins	330.00
Programs	20.00
Stationery	67.04
Miscellaneous printing	35.53
Badges	32.00
	<hr/>
	\$ 894.17

Expenses of program—

Speakers	\$ 364.65
Section chairmen	89.96
	<hr/> \$ 454.61

Expenses of administration—

Officers' expenses	\$ 450.55
Postage and express	275.74
Clerical help	92.15
Auditing	6.40
Other items	23.91
	<hr/> \$ 848.75

\$2,197.53

Balance on hand 656.13

\$2,853.66

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION

Adopted August, 1870, as a substitute for the older one,
and amended July 1886, July 1897, July 1898, and July 1906.

PREAMBLE.

We, whose names are hereunto subjoined, pledging our zealous efforts to promote the cause of popular education, agree to adopt the following Constitution:

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

The society shall be known by the title of the American Institute of Instruction.

ARTICLE II.—MEMBERS.

1. The members of the Institute shall be divided into four classes, styled active, associate, permanent and honorary.
2. Any person interested in the cause of education and recommended by the Committee on Membership may become an active member by a major vote of the members present and voting at any regular meeting.
3. Only active members shall be empowered to vote and hold office.
4. Any active member who shall for the period

of one year neglect to pay the annual assessment, shall by such neglect forfeit his membership.

5. Any person of good moral character may become an associate member for the current year by paying the annual assessment.

6. Permanent members shall consist of all ex-presidents of the Institute.

7. Honorary members may be elected by the Institute on recommendation of two-thirds of the Directors present at any stated meeting of the Board.

ARTICLE III.—MEETINGS.

1. The Annual Meeting shall be held at such time and place as the Board of Directors shall appoint.

2. Special meetings may be called by the Directors.

3. Due notice of the meetings of the Institute shall be given in the public journals.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

1. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, an Assistant Secretary, a Treasurer, an Assistant Treasurer, Permanent Members and twelve Counsellors, all of whom shall constitute a Board of Directors.

2. The officers, except the permanent members, shall be elected annually by ballot and shall continue in office till their successors shall be chosen.

ARTICLE V.—DUTIES OF OFFICERS.

1. The Secretary shall give notice of all meetings of the Institute and of the Board of Directors, and shall keep a record of their transactions.

2. The Treasurer shall collect and receive all moneys of the Institute, and shall render an accurate statement of his receipts and payments annually, and whenever called upon by the Board of Directors, to whom he shall give such bonds for the faithful performance of his duty as they shall require. He shall make no payment except by the order of the Finance Committee of the Board.

3. The Board of Directors shall devise and carry into execution such measures as may promote the general interests of the Institute, shall have charge of the property of the Institute, shall be authorized to publish its proceedings and such papers relating to education as may seem to them desirable. They shall have power to fill all vacancies in their Board, from members of the Institute, and make By-Laws for its government. They shall have power to vote an annual assessment of one dollar upon the members, except honorary members, and to remit the payment thereof when in their judgment it may seem wise to do so. They shall annually elect the following standing committees:

(1) A committee of six, who with the President, Secretary, and Treasurer, shall constitute the Committee on Membership, whose duty it shall be to report to the Institute from time to time the

names of such persons as they may recommend for membership.

(2) A committee of three on Finance, whose duty it shall be to audit the accounts of the Treasurer, and under the control of the Board of Directors, to draw orders on the Treasurer for the payment of charges against the Institute.

(3) A committee of three on Necrology.

(4) Stated meetings of the Board shall be held on the first Saturday in January and on the first day of the Annual Meeting of the Institute.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS AND AMENDMENTS.

1. By-Laws not repugnant to this Constitution may be adopted at any regular meeting.

2. This Constitution may be altered or amended by a vote of two-thirds of the members present at the Annual Meeting, provided two-thirds of the Directors present at the stated meeting shall agree to recommend the proposed alteration or amendment.

BY-LAWS.

1. At all meetings of the Board of Directors, seven members shall be necessary to constitute a quorum to do business.

2. It shall be the duty of the Secretary, on application of any two Directors, to call special meetings of the Board at such time and place as the President may appoint.

3. Before each Annual Meeting the Treasurer shall have printed certificates of membership, num-

bered consecutively from one upward. These certificates shall be attached to stubs having the corresponding numbers printed thereon. The book of stubs left after the certificates of membership are detached therefrom shall form a part of the Treasurer's account, to be delivered to the Finance Committee, for the purpose of auditing the accounts of the Institute.

Members of the American Institute of Instruction

Honorary Members

Camp, David N.....New Britain, Conn.
Hardon, Henry C.....Newton, Mass.

Permanent Members

In order of service as Presidents.

By Constitutional provision all ex-Presidents are Permanent Members.

Kneeland, John.....Roxbury, Mass.
Bicknell, Thomas W.....Providence, R. I.
Mowry, William A.....Hyde Park, Mass.
Walton, George A.....West Newton, Mass.
Sprague, Homer B.....Newton, Mass.
Hall, J. Milton.....Providence, R. I.
Huling, Ray Greene.....Cambridge, Mass.
Martin, Hon. George H.....Lynn, Mass.
Stetson, Hon. Wm. W.....Auburn, Me.
Parmenter, Charles W.....Cambridge, Mass.
Winship, Albert E.....Somerville, Mass.
Church, George E.....Providence, R. I.
Stone, Hon. Mason S.....Montpelier, Vt.
Bradbury, Wm. F.....Cambridge, Mass.
Keyes, Charles H.....Hartford, Conn.
Ranger, Hon. Walter E.....Providence, R. I.
Morrison, Hon. Henry C.....Concord, N. H.

Active Members

Members are requested to notify the Secretary of errors or omissions.

MAINE.

Bridgham, Maude A.....Auburn
Chase, George C.....Lewiston
Foster, Wm. T.....Brunswick
Jackson, Arthur C.....Damariscotta

Merriam, Sam L.....	Presque Isle
Prescott, Augusta L.....	Auburn
Purington, G. C.....	Farmington
Richardson, Albert F.....	Castine
Sargent, W. E.....	Hebron
Sisk, Robt. J.....	Auburn
Stone, Gertrude L.....	Gorham
Sands, Alice.....	Lewiston
White, Mrs. M. L. T.....	Presque Isle

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Chase, Alice M.....	Portsmouth
Cummings, W. H.....	Claremont
Folsom, Channing.....	Newmarket
Johnson, F. C.....	Boscowan
Klock, James E.....	Plymouth
Mildram, Alice.....	Portsmouth
Morrison, Hon. Henry C.....	Concord
Robertson, S. W.....	Rochester
Silver, Ernest L.....	Portsmouth
Smart, Melville C.....	Littleton
Sanborn, C. T.....	Concord
Sturdevant, J. V.....	Concord
Swett, H. P.....	Franklin
Walker, Isaac.....	Pembroke

VERMONT.

Ball, Edna A.....	Vergennes
Bartley, Joseph L.....	Burlington
Beebe, W. A.....	Morrisville
Blake, Percy H.....	Chester
Buckham, Matthew H.....	Burlington
Burnham, Anna.....	Marshfield
Cady, Eva S.....	Johnson
Chittendon, M. D.....	Burlington
Dorsey, E. H.....	Ludlow
Dubois, Miss M. S.....	Randolph
Enright, Alida F.....	Lunenburg
Enright, Mary.....	Burlington
Field, Mabel E.....	Vergennes
Huntoon, Eliza A.....	Wallingford
Lawson, Geo. B.....	Saxtons River
Leavenworth, P. B.....	Castleton
Locke, D. B.....	Rutland
Loomis, James F.....	Saxtons River
Morrill, Charles H.....	Randolph Center

Page, Donald P.....	Bakersfield
Pease, Miss M. F.....	Burlington
Stewart, Jennie V.....	Randolph
Thomas, Isaac.....	Rutland
Tucker, Marguerite E.....	Brattleboro
Tuttle, Allison E.....	Bellows Falls
Tuttle, Mrs. Allison E.....	Bellows Falls

MASSACHUSETTS.

Alexander, O. S.....	Fitchburg
Andrews, Mrs. Fannie Fern.....	378 Newbury St., Boston
Badger, Abner A.....	East Weymouth
Barnes, Thomas H.....	773 Broadway, So. Boston
Bates, Herbert H.....	Cambridge
Bowen, Archer C.....	Melrose
Brayton, Percy S.....	West Medford
Bridgewater, John, Jr.....	120 Boylston St., Boston
Brockway	West Springfield
Brockway, Mrs. Isadore P.....	Worcester
Brodeur, Clarence A.....	Westfield
Bunker, Alfred.....	27 Juniper St., Roxbury
Burdett, J. H.....	22 Chestnut St., Dedham
Clough, B. M.....	Easthampton
Cook, E. H.....	Leominster
Cowell, Harvey S.....	Ashburnham
Cox, E. J.....	Newtonville
Cushing, Walter H.....	So. Framingham
Daniel, M. Grant.....	Roxbury
Dempsey, Clarence H.....	Revere
Easton, Norman S.....	Fall River
Eaton, Geo. T.....	Andover
Edgerly, Joseph G.....	Fitchburg
Edmund, Gertrude.....	Lowell
Eliot, Charles W.....	Cambridge
Ellis, Carlos B.....	Springfield
Fansey, John R.....	Springfield
Gault, John.....	70 Pine St., Boston
Glover, O. E.....	120 Boylston St., Boston
Goodline, E. U.....	Haydenville
Gordy, W. F.....	Springfield
Greenough, J. C.....	Westfield
Hardy, A. L.....	Amherst
Hatch, W. E.....	New Bedford
Hazard, Caroline.....	Wellesley
Holden, Miles W.....	Springfield
Holland, Sara J.....	East Taunton
Hovey, Laura E.....	Dorchester
Jackson, Charles S.....	Lynn

Jackson, Joseph.....	Worcester
Jacoby, Asher J.....	Milton
Jones, A. M.....	Charlemon
Keitn, Allen P.....	New Bedford
King, Charles F.....	Roxbury
Learned, Alonzo K.....	Holden
Lewis, Homer P.....	Worcester
Lingham, C. H.....	Boston
Lord, Dr. E. W.....	101 Tremont St., Boston
Mead, Mrs. Lucia A.....	Boston
McConkey, Bertha M.....	Springfield
McDonald, James R.....	254 Washington St., Boston
McDonald, Mrs. Etta A. B.....	West Medford
Moore, George H.....	Boston
Nolen, A. Eugene.....	Fitchburg
Parker, Walter S.....	Boston
Pease, Alvin F.....	Malden
Parlin, Frank E.....	Quincy
Perkins, John W.....	Salem
Pierce, Mrs. H. N.....	Taunton
Putnam, Walter L.....	Danvers
Rand, Emily P.....	Taunton
Rugg, George.....	Princeton
Savage, A. A.....	Lowell
Smith, Arthur W.....	Adams
Tetlow, John.....	Boston
Thompson, Edgar E.....	Worcester
Thompson, Thomas E.....	Leominster
Wheelock, Lucy.....	Boston
Whitcomb, Arthur K.....	Lowell
Whitcomb, C. T. C.....	Brockton
Whitney, Frank W.....	Watertown
Williams, Kate R.....	Taunton

RHODE ISLAND.

Aløer, John L.....	Providence
Aløer, Mrs. John L.....	Providence
Allen, Lyman R.....	Providence
Barnes, Sarah Dyer.....	Providence
Blinkhorn, Janet.....	Providence
Eddy, William H.....	666 Angell St., Providence
Edwards, Howard.....	Kingston
Hoyt, David W.....	Providence
Jacobs, Walter B.....	Providence
Kingsley, Nathan G.....	Providence
Lull, H. W.....	Newport
Mead, Lewis H.....	Providence
McFee, F. E.....	Woonsocket

Mowry, Wendell A.....	Central Falls
Peck, William T.....	Providence
Reynolds, John P.....	Bristol
Small, Walter H.....	Providence
Sweeney, Ella L.....	Providence
Whittemore, Gilbert E.....	Providence

CONNECTICUT.

Akers, Winfred C.....	New Britain
Andrews, Edwin C.....	Shelton
Beede, F. H.....	New Haven
Bishop, Nathan L.....	Norwich
Blindloss, Irene T.....	New London
Cairns, Elizabeth J.....	Hartford
Campbell, Miss I. J.....	Wallingford
Eaton, Frank W.....	Naugatuck
Engel, Minnie O.....	Hartford
Graves, S. I.....	New Haven
Guinan, Elizabeth M.....	Hartford
Higgins, Mary.....	New Britain
Hine, Hon. Chas. D.....	Hartford
Howes, Bessie E.....	Bridgeport
Holmes, Stanley H.....	New Britain
Jepson, Benjamin.....	New Haven
Jones, Frank O.....	Hartford
Judd, Charles H.....	New Haven
Keyes, Mrs. Charles H.....	Hartford
Knowlton, Junius C.....	New Haven
McGill, Anna R.....	New Britain
Peck, John H.....	West Hartford
Rice, William North.....	Middletown
Rockwell, Evelena B.....	New Haven
Saxe, Henry W.....	New Canaan
Sellew, Edward B.....	New Haven
Smith, Ada C.....	New London
Thompson, Blanche E.....	New Haven
Twitchell, W. I.....	Hartford
White, Marcus.....	New Britain
Wiard, Martin S.....	New Britain
Wilkins, Blanche.....	West Hartford
Williams, S. P.....	Bridgeport

NEW YORK.

Hall, Elizabeth.....	Schenectady
Lang, Ossian.....	61 East Ninth St., New York
Wilbur, T. C.....	Ticonderoga

NEW JERSEY.

Bennett, Lydia A.....	Leonia
Clark, Robert.....	Elizabeth
Garrison, Lena M.....	Passaic
Merriam, Bert E.....	Hackensack
Reed, George H.....	Jersey City

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

Griggs, Alice J.....	Sherbrooke
Hunter, J. H.....	North Hatley
Kirkland, Maude A.....	Montreal
Lecroix, A. D.....	Montreal

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Cummings, G. J.....	Washington
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PENNSYLVANIA.

Underwood, Homer K.....	Sewickley
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TENNESSEE.

Wyatt, H. D.....	Chattanooga
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